

REORGANIZING THE HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM



A University School Group Watching the Inauguration of President Eisenhower on Television. *Courtesy The Ohio State University School, Columbus, Ohio.*

REORGANIZING THE HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM

REVISED EDITION

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Dedicated to

BOYD H. BODE

Humanitarian

Philosopher

Teacher

PREFACE

Since the appearance of the first edition of *Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum* in 1947, there have been many shifts in the American socioeconomic scene and in the educational world. These changes have prompted the author to revise the first edition rather completely.

The basic point of view of the author—that the high-school should play a significant role in perpetuating, refining, and reinterpreting our democratic way of life—has not undergone material change. Indeed, the demand for a more dynamic educational program is more insistent than in 1947. Threats to our democracy both from within and without and the new and broader concept of world leadership which is emerging call, more than ever, for a high-school program which is dedicated to the development of effective citizenship.

In general, educators are agreed upon the need for some reorganization of the high-school curriculum to promote more effective citizenship, but there are wide differences of opinion as to the direction which such reorganization should take. Small but powerful groups would retreat to the education of another day and emphasize academic scholarship. Other groups would place stress upon vocational competence and preparation for the day-to-day demands of life. Between these extremes are many differing proposals for changes.

Like the earlier volume, the revised edition is designed to afford help to students, teachers, administrators, and laymen in the clarification of educational purposes and their implications for the curriculum of the school. It tries to deal fairly with conflicting ideas but at the same time seeks to present a clear point of view and program.

The author believes that the curriculum should be interpreted broadly as embracing *all* of the student activities which the school sponsors for the purpose of achieving its objectives. This means that there are no sharp divisions between subject matter and method, the curriculum and the extra-curriculum, education and guidance, philosophy and practice. These concepts are integral parts of an

organic unity which has its center in the life and learning of the student. To separate them does violence to the educative process. In the presentation of these various facets, the author tries not to lose sight of the larger whole.

Chapter I sets the stage for curriculum reorganization by presenting and responding to a series of searching questions concerning high-school education today. To some readers, this analysis may appear to be too critical. To them the author can only plead that we need to face realistically the shortcomings of an educational institution which should be playing a vital part in the determination of the future of our society.

Chapters II, III, and IV lay the foundation for curriculum reorganization which the author considers to be the values or ideals of democracy, the nature of the learner and the learning process, and the needs, problems, and interests of the adolescent. In this treatment the author is influenced by the interpretations of democracy of the Experimentalist School, led by John Dewey. Needless to say, the *organismic* conception of learning fits neatly into this position, and is therefore developed at some length.

In Chapters V to VIII, inclusive, the author undertakes to examine trends in curriculum design and to present a clear picture of what this design should be. To this end, the confusing claims of the subject-centered *vs.* the experience-centered approaches are examined critically and an attempt is made to reconcile them. The conflicting interpretations of general and special-interest education are also presented and evaluated. And finally, an analysis is made of some of the procedures which have been used to develop new curriculum designs.

Chapters IX to XIII, inclusive, are devoted to an examination of the newer trends in classroom teaching and learning. Initially, the implications of democracy, and of the *organismic* theory of learning are developed in terms of an over-all procedure for learning. The extensive experimentation over a period of half a century is examined and interpreted in the light of the new emphasis upon group dynamics and participation. This part of the volume closes with the presentation in narrative form of four units of work which were ac-

tually carried out in high schools in various parts of the country. These illustrations by four master teachers are intended to give dramatic proof of the possibility of translating theory into practice.

One of the most difficult problems of bringing about improvement in curricular practices is how to help teachers and administrators develop the "know-how" of curriculum development. Consequently, Chapters XIV to XVI, inclusive, are devoted to the problem of developing resource materials and setting up in-service programs. The author has drawn heavily upon current practices and has attempted to help the reader to interpret them. The volume concludes with a selected list of audio-visual materials keyed to the various chapters.

This volume is not intended as a compendium of all existing theories and practices. In a sense it is neither complete nor comprehensive. It does claim, however, to catch up some of the more significant trends, practices, and movements and to interpret them in the light of the ideals of our democratic culture, and in terms of their promise for improving the education of youth.

It would be impossible for the author to acknowledge specifically his indebtedness to all who have had a part in this undertaking. The reader will not fail to note the contributions of scores of the author's graduate students. Over a period of more than a quarter of a century, many of these students have influenced his thinking. Many of them now occupy responsible positions in the educational field and continue to inspire him to try to make democracy live in the classroom.

The author also expresses his keen appreciation for the help given him by his teachers and colleagues over a long period of time. In this category particular mention is made of Boyd H. Bode, Max Otto, and Vivian T. Thayer. Finally credit is given to the many individuals and publishers who have generously granted permission to quote from copyrighted materials.

HAROLD ALBERTY

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REORGANIZING THE HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM

CHAPTER I

THE PRESENT STATUS OF HIGH-SCHOOL EDUCATION: A CRITICAL APPRAISAL

One of the characteristics of a democratic society is change. In periods of crisis, such as the one that has existed since the close of World War II and is likely to continue for a long time, change is greatly accelerated. Another characteristic of democracy is that the people through their organized institutions and representatives are expected to direct change. Making a decision on what road to travel is a difficult process and one which cannot be left to whim or caprice. Fortunately our society accepts the idea that the common man through the use of the method of intelligence is capable of making the "best" decisions.

At the present time our society is confronted with momentous decisions as to the direction which change should take. Our way of life is threatened both from without and within. On the world scene, the threat of total war is constantly in the foreground. Technological development has forever destroyed the possibility of national isolation. Science tells us plainly that there can be but *one world*; yet, for as far ahead as can be seen, clashing ideologies are likely to prevent the realization of a united world. Science and technology have also provided man with the instruments which may be used to destroy himself or to build a better world. Clashing ideologies now literally prevent him from utilizing the fruits of technology for promoting human welfare. The constant threat of destruction through total war cannot but color the attitudes and activities of

people all over the world. And this threat has a profound effect upon the outlook and security of youth.

On the national scene which, of course, reflects the world climate, we as a people are beset by indecision, conflict, and confusion. We want world organization, but we fear inroads upon our national sovereignty. We want government to assume increased responsibility for social welfare, but this desire runs counter to our cherished ideals of personal freedom. We want increased control of industry, but at the same time we want to protect the "free enterprise" system. We cherish freedom of speech, but we are afraid to give it to those who differ with us. We have faith in the method of intelligence as a way of solving moral and ethical problems, but we fear that its use will make serious inroads upon our religious beliefs. We recognize the validity of the American concept of equality, but we continue to discriminate against those who differ from us in race, nationality, economic and social status, and creed. We want to preserve our democracy, but we tend to use undemocratic means to accomplish our desire—means which may in the long run destroy democracy itself.

The confusions and conflicts sketchily presented are inevitable in a dynamic democratic culture. We are continuously struggling for greater clarity. The quality of the decisions we make will influence the future of democracy.

This is the kind of world in which the young people of today are growing up. Clearly an educational program which is not based squarely upon a realistic interpretation of the problems which beset youth in this kind of a world is not capable of playing a major role in the preservation and refinement of democracy. It therefore behooves educators and laymen alike to take a critical look at the high school, which society has set up as an important agency for building democratic citizenship.

IS HIGH-SCHOOL EDUCATION MEETING THE CHALLENGE OF THE TIMES?

At the outset of a discussion of curriculum reorganization in the high school it seems appropriate to examine briefly the present

status of high-school education. This will be done through the asking and answering of a series of pertinent questions, and the attempt to discover discernible trends. The purpose is to clarify the issues and problems facing the high school, rather than to present solutions. It is hoped that later chapters will offer some concrete assistance in furthering the desirable trends which are discovered.

What Progress Have We Made in Providing a High-School Education for All American Youth? One of the amazing phenomena of American life is the faith of the people in education. In no other country in the world are so many young people to be found in the high schools. Data gathered from various sources show that in 1890 there was only one high-school student to 312 persons of the general population, while by 1926 this ratio had shifted so that for each group of 31 persons, one student was to be found in the high school. In the decade from 1920 to 1930, the high-school enrollment increased about 100 per cent while the elementary enrollment increased but 10 per cent. Before World War II it was estimated that out of a population of nearly ten million youth, aged fourteen to seventeen years, almost seven million were enrolled in high school. During the war, the effect of the rapid increase in the demand for workers was felt by the high school. Many youths dropped out of school to work, but after the war high-school enrollments resumed their upward trend. While accurate statistics are not available, it is safe to assume that at the present time between 75 and 80 per cent of the youth of high-school age are enrolled, and it is altogether probable that the percentage will increase significantly during the next decade.

On the surface, this rapid growth in the high-school population would appear most gratifying, but upon closer examination the situation is disturbing. All studies of the character of the high-school population indicate that it is still a rather highly selected group.¹

¹ *General Education in the American High School*. North-Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Chicago, Scott, Foresman and Company, 1942. In Chapter I, Harold Hand presents an excellent summary of several studies of the secondary school population. For those who wish to examine first-hand studies the following references are given:

George S. Counts, *The Selective Character of American Secondary Education*. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1922.

Youth of low mental ability usually do not get into the high school, and when they do there is little likelihood that they will continue until graduation. One investigator places the chance that a student of average or less intellectual ability, as measured by intelligence tests, will continue to the senior year as about one in twelve. This means that the student who is less able to meet the problems of life outside the school either does not get to the high school at all or drops out in a short time. It is estimated by the Office of Education that only about 60 per cent of those who enter high school actually continue until graduation. There are many people, including an articulate group of educators, who insist that this is as it should be. They claim that the presence of the low-ability student results inevitably in a lowering of standards. This group tends to ignore the fact that a fundamental reorganization of the curriculum to provide for all levels of ability would be a more satisfactory solution of the problem from the standpoint of democratic education. •

Another selective factor in high-school attendance is the financial status of parents. When we consider the low annual income of large numbers of American families, it becomes evident that for many young people high-school attendance is simply out of the question. Free education is really a myth, for it has been shown that the average cost of high-school attendance is more than \$125 per year, contrary to the popular conception that it costs little or nothing to attend high school.² This means that there is a serious economic

barrier to high-school attendance which prevents youth from the less favored groups from receiving the benefits of a high-school education.

In some of the states, equality of educational opportunity is denied certain racial and nationality groups. This is particularly true of Negroes in the South where segregation is the common pattern. All too often young people are forced to travel long distances to attend poorly equipped segregated schools. This accounts for the fact that a much lower percentage of Negro youth attend high school.

It must be pointed out, however, that the situation is improving. Spurred by Supreme Court decisions and a gradual shift in attitude toward the Negro, many school districts are making rapid strides to provide equality of opportunity. In several districts in Maryland, for example, high school buildings and equipment of Negro schools are superior to those provided for youth of white parentage. Probably this situation is fairly typical. One district in Louisiana, known to the author, is spending one-half of a twenty-million-dollar bond issue to improve Negro schools. Perhaps even greater progress has been made in providing equality in teachers' salary schedules. Many of the southern states have laws providing for the same schedule for white and colored school teachers.

Another shortcoming which must be mentioned is the failure of communities to provide educational opportunities beyond the twelfth grade. The so-called junior college, or as it is coming to be known, the community college, has proved its value in the states where it has been developed, but it has not been extended sufficiently to provide opportunities to the great mass of youth who have the capacity to profit from education beyond the traditional twelfth year.

It is evident that we have a long way to go before we can claim that the American high school has achieved the ideal of equality of opportunity for all youth.

Do High Schools, By and Large, Carry on Their Programs in the Light of a Consistent, Well Developed Philosophy or Set of Purposes? In recent years a great deal of emphasis has been placed

upon the purposes of education in American democracy. Dozens of formulations have been made by authoritative bodies. Some schools, particularly those that have developed new curricular programs, have given much attention to this problem.

At the state level, Florida, Michigan, and Maryland are among the states that have made important strides in stimulating local districts to re-examine their purposes. However, an examination of the literature of high-school education reveals that even in the area of educational theory there is much disagreement as to the purposes which the institution should serve. To some, the school should transmit the social heritage. To others, it should seek to improve the life of the community and reconstruct the ideals of the culture. To still others, it should be an instrument of the state for its own perpetuation. Others would make it largely a school for training in vocation. In practice, the situation is even more chaotic. There are many diverse and conflicting curriculum practices, even in the same school. Methods range from the daily ground-to-be-covered procedure to long-range teacher-student planned assignments. School-community relationships are too frequently not developed in the light of any consistent pattern. New subjects are introduced through the demands of pressure groups without much reference to other offerings. Many of these problems will be discussed later in this chapter. It is sufficient here to point out that schools are just beginning to sense the need for developing a philosophy.

To What Extent Has the High-School Curriculum Kept Pace with the New Demands Made on It by the Changing Socioeconomic Scene and the New Concept of Adolescent Needs? It is a well-known fact that high-school offerings have increased enormously during the past few decades. This is particularly true in the larger high schools. In 1890 the curriculum consisted largely of the so-called academic subjects. The famous Committee of Ten (1893) recommended five separate curriculums that varied little from each other except that some curriculums required more units of ancient and modern languages and mathematics. Now the situation is quite different. Schools have expanded their offerings to include a wide range of "practical" subjects such as home economics, fine and in-

dustrial arts, music, and an impressive list of vocational subjects. The "academic" subjects have also undergone expansion. General language, general science, and general mathematics have become quite common. Courses in psychology, conservation, and safety are also finding their way into the high-school curriculum. It should be pointed out, too, that there is a trend toward a unification of subjects. The favorite combination is English and social science, but in some of the more experimental schools, core or fused courses are to be found that utilize subject matter from practically all of the fields.

Textbooks which largely define the content of courses have been vastly improved. They are better organized—many in terms of units of instruction. They contain more reference materials from sources outside the textbooks. Illustrations are better and more profuse. Vocabulary studies have resulted in language simplification. Workbooks have been written to accompany many textbooks and these are widely used. Some teachers, particularly in the newer fields, have substituted a number of reference books and other library materials for textbook instruction.

Extra-curricular programs, which are regarded theoretically as a part of the curriculum, have been greatly popularized and extended. Athletic programs have flourished. School clubs of every conceivable nature, from the traditional subject clubs (e.g., science or French), to those dealing with such activities as photography and airplane-model building, have sprung up in many schools. And most of these, with the exception of athletics, are more or less student-planned and controlled.

In spite of these evidences of progress, the high-school curriculum has serious shortcomings. Some of these will be pointed out briefly, leaving the more extended discussion for later chapters.

Many years ago, W. S. Learned³ pointed out that the curriculum was "a rope of sand"; this is more or less true today. Graduation from high school depends on accumulating sixteen separate "units" without much interrelation or unity. New courses have been added

without much study of their relationship to those already a part of the curriculum. Student progress is not cumulative in any intellectual or practical sense. Frequently the teachers in one area have little or no knowledge of what is being taught in other areas. The result so far as the student is concerned is frequently confusion, fragmentary knowledge, and inadequate mastery.⁴

The time-honored, well-established academic fields representing accepted logical organizations of knowledge are still a very powerful influence in the curriculum and consume a large part of the student's time. Very frequently they crowd out the more practical subjects simply because they have greater prestige with parents, teachers, and particularly with the colleges. And present-day demands for "toughness," rigorous mental discipline, and the like, are tending to intrrench these subjects even more deeply. True, vocational curriculums, often in specialized schools, abound, but vocational education is frequently quite divorced from general culture and citizenship training. In many of the smaller schools, and some of the larger ones, the student must choose between classical or modern languages, and home economics or industrial arts. The absurdity of such a program is self-evident.

In spite of the more practical emphases discussed above, schools have not, by and large, given much attention to personal living, including health education, face-to-face relationships of adolescents or to the participation of the student in the socioeconomic life of the community. The old issue as to whether the curriculum should be organized in terms of the problems, interests, and needs of students, or in terms of preparation for adult life is still a very live one.⁵ Present practice certainly indicates that the latter point of view is common. Attempts to get the points of view together in a program have not been very meaningful. Perhaps the most prevalent assumption is that the formal curriculum is planned to meet the needs of adult life,

and the extra-curriculum to meet the immediate needs of students. This conception goes far to block any attempt at basic curriculum reorganization and perpetuates a dualism that need never have developed. It should be pointed out, too, that the slavish following of the adopted textbook tends to "freeze" the curriculum and negate any attempt to secure unity between the curriculum and the extra-curriculum or to relate the curriculum to the particular problems and interests of youth that grow out of their day-to-day interactions with their fellows and their relationships with the immediate and wider community.

The failure of the high school to meet the needs of a large group—by some claimed to be 40 per cent—has given rise to the *Life Adjustment* movement which is designed to make the high-school program more functional. This important development has not yet affected high-school curriculums to any marked degree.⁶

Finally, it must be recognized that the above-mentioned trend toward securing greater unity through core or fused courses is still only in its infancy. Such courses represent such a violent break with tradition that schools are slow to experiment with them. The United States Office of Education reports ⁷ that only 3½ per cent of the more than 24 thousand high schools have attempted even moderate reorganization—and these mostly at the junior high-school level.

How Successful Have High Schools Been in Utilizing Sound Educational Theory and Experimentation in Improving Classroom Procedures? In the first three decades of the century, there was a marked emphasis upon teaching methods. The Herbartian formal lesson plan was beginning to give way to various types of unit planning. The project method which started in the agricultural field was being applied to other subjects. H. L. Miller experimented with a method which utilized the various steps in the thinking process as stages of learning. H. C. Morrison developed a method known as

the Morrison Plan that advocated comprehensive units of subject matter designed to bring about new adaptations or understandings. The Dalton and Winnetka Plans were designed to break the lock-step and permit students to progress at their own rates of learning. V. T. Thayer wrote a book optimistically called *The Passing of the Recitation*. Meanwhile the activity movement, which provided for large "units of work" or "centers of interest," had found considerable acceptance in the elementary-education field. All of these movements were directed against the daily ground-to-be-covered recitation method and were consistent with the new psychology of learning which was being developed.

Up-to-date statistics bearing upon the use of these various plans are difficult to secure. In 1933 not one of them was used by more than 10 per cent of the large number of schools studied. Recent studies indicate that the situation is not much different at the present time. Daily assignment of lessons from textbooks is without a doubt the most common practice in the high schools today. This is particularly true in the so-called academic fields. The fact that this method has long been repudiated by psychologists and educators seems to have little effect upon actual classroom practice.

The daily-assignment technique has the advantage of definiteness and is admirably adapted to the conception of education that prizes the acquisition of knowledge as the chief end. The recitation period provides an easy and obvious way of determining whether or not the student has completed the assigned tasks. It is contrary to the modern psychology of learning, however, and does not facilitate the acquisition of such learning products as thinking, creativeness, initiative, and self-direction, which are significant in a democracy.

The significant *Group Dynamics* movement which promises much for the democratization of teaching procedures has not yet registered any great impact on teaching procedures, nor is it likely to do so as long as the curriculum is dominated by the ground-to-be-covered conception.

To What Extent Are Evaluation Programs in the High School Geared with the Modern Conception of the Purposes of the

School? It has long been known that the learning products which are actually tested are the determining factors in curricular planning and learning. Traditionally, testing has been largely confined to the determination of facts memorized or skills mastered, rather than in terms of democratic values and attitudes. Nor did the scientific testing movement change this situation to any great extent, for in this field the emphasis has been placed upon standard norms that assume that large numbers of students have been exposed to the same subject matter, to the same specific facts to be mastered. If the curriculum is changed materially, the tests are no longer appropriate; consequently the tendency is to continue teaching the same subject matter and to stress the same objectives. State scholarship testing programs and the traditional system of "Regents Examinations" have also accentuated this trend. It may safely be stated that most present-day testing programs stress the acquisition of facts and information with only superficial attempts to get at the more intangible but significant values. This is because facts and information lend themselves to objective treatment more readily than do values.

Fortunately, under the impetus of the progressive movement, successful attempts have been made to devise evaluation instruments for testing such values as personal-social adjustment, reflective thinking, consistency of belief, ability to cooperate, social sensitivity, and the extension of worthy interests ⁸

How Adequate Are High-School Buildings, and Equipment for Carrying on a Modern Educational Program? Even the casual observer cannot fail to note that there has been a vast improvement in school-building design. Under the stimulation of the scientific study of the efficiency of buildings, school architects have given much more attention in recent years to satisfactory lighting and heating, to the most efficient beam spans, width of corridors, and number and location of lavatories. The battle to include gymna-

siums and auditoriums has been won, and the inclusion of studios and shops, while regarded as frills in some quarters, is really a commonplace. Even the external appearance of school buildings has been vastly improved, for while most buildings are still box-like structures without much claim to aesthetic values, they are at least free from the "gingerbread" decoration of an earlier day. At least one can say that they are not offensive. One may travel through hundreds of towns and cities and find school buildings that are as a rule far above the average of efficiency and appearance to be found in other buildings of the community, including residences. In many communities the public-school building is the only modern building to be found. It is true that one has to apply the criterion "good for the locality." But with all these material improvements, it must be said that we are only beginning to understand the meaning of "functional design."

School buildings actually built to facilitate an ongoing dynamic philosophy of education are such a rarity as to make one question the functional value of a philosophy of education. The school architect who has any sense of the actual possibilities of building construction as a means of promoting the idea that the school has a distinctive role to perform in transforming the life of the community is very difficult, if not impossible, to locate. And it is easy to find educational research bureaus that conduct building surveys without any regard whatever for the educational program which is, or ought to be, carried on in the proposed building. Fortunately there is a growing trend toward using faculty committees in building planning. For example, in Battle Creek, Michigan every building faculty studies the building and equipment needs and works with the administration in building and equipping new buildings. This trend should be encouraged.

Equipment and interior decoration have been vastly improved. Much more care has been given in recent years to the selection of school furniture to facilitate good posture and provide for satisfactory illumination. Excellent reproductions of good paintings have found a place on many schoolroom walls. Well-equipped science

laboratories, shops, and studios, designed to provide first-hand experiences have made their appearance in many high-school buildings. Sound systems and visual aids have come into fairly common use, especially in city school systems.

Yet in this field only beginnings have been made. It is still common practice to decorate all rooms exactly alike, to have seating equipment fastened rigidly to the floor, to plan laboratories as if all pupils were expected to be working on exactly the same project at the same time. Corridors are still cluttered up with unsightly, noisy lockers, and ugly plaster casts. Rooms especially equipped for leisure-time and social activities of teachers and students are conspicuous by their absence. Laboratories, shops, studios, and classrooms are usually not equipped to invite the exploration of individual interest and abilities. The possibilities of arranging school furniture in such a way as to facilitate cooperation among pupils are not developed to any great extent. Provision is seldom made for periodic repainting of murals by students. Exhibit cases for athletic trophies are far more prominent than are appropriate places for exhibiting the arts and crafts work of the students or completed projects in other fields. Draperies are occasionally to be found in principals' offices but are usually considered to be unnecessary for classrooms and laboratories. Why all these deficiencies? Is it because of lack of funds? Usually this is not the answer. Rather, the answer is to be found, partly at least, in a lack of a controlling, consistent, and unified philosophy of education. Generally speaking, school equipment is not seen as a means of facilitating the way of life which we call democratic.

The school-building picture, dark as it is, is likely to become darker as the full impact of the war years extends to the high-school population. High-school buildings, already over-crowded, are inadequate to take care of the ever-increasing student load, and the urgency of providing new buildings is likely to be the dominant factor, rather than the functional design of the buildings.⁹

What Role Do High-School Teachers Play in Curriculum Improvement? There is by no means universal recognition of the fact that teachers ought to play the *leading* role in curriculum development. However, when programs are introduced that break sharply with the traditional subject-centered program, teachers have taken a leading part. During the past few years, thousands of teachers have given up all or part of their summer vacations to attend workshops for the purpose of working directly on their problems. In some cases, boards of education have financed large groups of teachers for such activity. These teachers have worked together upon the development of philosophy, studies of adolescents, resource units, programs of evaluation, and the like, and have gone back to their schools to do a better job of teaching.¹⁰

However, there is no evidence to support the view that high-school teachers, by and large, are eager to participate in curriculum-development programs. The reasons are not difficult to discover. Most teachers are products of the academic tradition which holds that the cultural heritage transmitted in the form of textbooks to be studied and mastered will transfer readily to life situations. They have been taught this in college, and their meager professional training has done little to change their beliefs. All through college they are subjected to logically organized systems of knowledge taught by subject-matter specialists. For the student, academic success is defined as mastery of these materials.

On the whole, the teacher has found that the high school in which he teaches is congenial to the perpetuation of the same values which he learned to cherish in college. When he enters the classroom, he finds a fixed course of study, perhaps prescribing the ground to be covered each semester, and a textbook containing the subject matter to be taught. It is easy to transfer his college experience to this new situation. He cannot be blamed for doing so. Gradually he develops a deep sense of security through teaching the same cut-and-dried

materials year after year. The students don't object. The community is satisfied. Why should he change? In such a climate it is easy to be complacent and self-satisfied, and even to build up barriers to prevent change.

The experience gained from the *Eight-Year Study*¹¹ tends to support this point. One of the obstacles to the utilization of the freedom granted by the colleges was the traditional attitudes of teachers. Heretofore, they had rationalized their failure to meet the needs of youth by claims that the college-entrance requirements strait-jacketed them. Released from such requirements, they had neither the will to change nor the understanding of what should be done. In some schools, small groups of teachers were found who had an honest desire to launch out on uncharted seas. New programs were instituted which embraced only a small segment of the students and the more progressively-minded teachers, simply because all teachers were not interested. Often these programs were defeated by the large body of conservatively-minded teachers who not only had no desire to participate in the program, but also saw in it a threat to their own security.

When the teachers of Bloomington, Ill., were asked: "What are your suggestions for improving your school?" forty-six per cent had *no* suggestions, and only five per cent suggested improving the curriculum. Twice as many suggested: "Better administrators, supervisors or board members."¹² It is interesting to note that twelve per cent of the senior high-school teachers suggested improving the curriculum. This seems contrary to other findings concerning the complacency of senior high-school teachers as compared with those of the elementary and junior high school. But even though this interest in improving the curriculum is commendable, it must be remem-

bered that *less than one teacher in eight suggested improving the curriculum.*¹⁸

How Well Satisfied Are High-School Students with the Curriculums of Their Schools? High-school students show a surprising lack of desire to pursue new curriculums and methods of work that call for the use of initiative, originality, and the ability to plan their work. They, too, have found security in the daily ground-to-be-covered assignments from textbooks and in a testing program that places a premium on the memorization of facts and information. Even in extra-curricular activity programs in which students have had abundant opportunity to live in a truly democratic atmosphere, all too frequently active participation is limited to a relatively small percentage of the student group. One needs only to ask college freshmen to express their opinions of their high schools to discover that most of them have been completely satisfied with their program. At best, their criticisms are superficial and lacking in fundamental insight into ways in which the school might have helped them to meet their needs. In the study of the Bloomington, Ill., schools the following conclusion is reached:

Only about a third of either (younger and older) student groups volunteered suggestions for the improvement of their schools. Most frequently mentioned by both groups (about 12 per cent) was the suggestion that more understanding, better, and younger teachers be employed. About five per cent of both the older and the younger pupils suggested that more student activities be provided. Included among the other suggestions

which were offered by more than one per cent of the students were pleas for more or better equipment, recommendations that the building be modernized or repaired, that pupil behavior be improved and that longer lunch periods and better lunch facilities be provided.¹⁴

Note that none of these suggestions bears directly on curriculum improvement. One reason for this condition is to be found in the fact that, in spite of what has been said about the democratic character of our high schools, they still remain rather highly selective institutions. Their graduates are largely made up of the students of professional and business groups that occupy a relatively high position on the economic scale. Many students from less favored economic groups tend to drop out early and consequently are not present to testify as to the inadequacy of their high-school experience.¹⁵ It is not surprising to find that those students who survive are fairly well adjusted and have only minor criticisms to make of their school experience.

Fortunately, there is a brighter side, for evidence at hand tends to show that when once high-school students become accustomed to a more dynamic type of education, they readily assume responsibility for helping to plan and carry out their own programs.¹⁶ Students have demonstrated that they can participate effectively in community health and recreation programs and in the general improvement of community life.¹⁷

How Effective Are School Administrators in Providing Leadership in Curriculum Reorganization? A well-known educator once

said: "As the principal, so is the school." This is undoubtedly an over-statement, but it is certainly true that without leadership in the principal's office not much is likely to happen by way of curriculum development. The converse is likely to be true also. Wherever one finds a wide-awake, well-trained principal, an inservice curriculum development program is likely to be under way. Through democratic administration he is able to overcome most of the obstacles which are presented in this chapter. Many of these cooperatively developed curriculum programs are described elsewhere in this volume.

But administrators, like teachers, suffer from traditional theories and practices. Their preparation for their work consists largely of courses in school finance, business administration, school buildings—all good in themselves but not very valuable for learning how to work with a teaching staff in dealing with vital problems of the classroom.

Then too, school administration is a hazardous occupation. Frequently administrators do not share the tenure laws enjoyed by teachers. Unfortunately promotions are more likely to come to the administrator if he pursues a *laissez-faire* policy on curriculum matters. Some of the administrators who have difficulty holding their jobs have been identified with progressive changes in the schools that are not accepted by powerful interest groups in the community. Widely publicized experiences of this sort are likely to cause fear and insecurity on the part of other administrators. Lacking the "know-how" of developing a sound public-relations program, they retreat to the ivory tower and find their security and feeling of achievement in performing efficiently the details of day-to-day administration.

A considerable amount of the blame for the failure of a large percentage of schools to apply sound principles of curriculum development to their programs must be placed upon the shoulders of the high-school principal and other administrative heads. How else can one explain the fact that so little is happening in the field of curriculum development even though the National Association of Secondary-School Principals has consistently advocated curriculum reform?

Through such publications as *Education for All American Youth*, *Planning for All American Youth* and the more recent *Education for All American Youth—A Further Look*, it has promoted curriculum development, particularly in the field of general education. But the programs advocated are to be found in very few American high schools.¹⁸

What Part Do Parents and Other Laymen Play in Promoting or Retarding Curriculum Reorganization Programs? Laymen's opinion polls¹⁹ all seem to indicate that the public is fairly well satisfied with the schools and the products which they are turning out. When laymen make criticisms they are likely to be of a constructive nature. In general they feel that too little attention is being given to human relations, sex education, and religion, and that too little help is being given to the public in understanding what the schools are trying to do. Many feel that there is too little emphasis being placed on the teaching of the fundamentals, and on American history and citizenship. There is no widespread movement by laymen either to maintain the *status quo* or to change drastically the program of the schools. Perhaps most laymen are inclined to leave the whole matter to the professional educators.

But the picture presented above is not the whole story. The schools are attacked by small pressure groups that have some particular interest which they wish to promote. They consist of taxpayers' leagues interested in the reduction of school taxes; patriotic organizations that want textbooks purged of "subversive" material; religious groups that hold that the schools are "Godless," or who demand public support for private schools. Some of these groups are local in character and conduct their activities in the American

way of open discussion and decisions arrived at through the method of intelligence. But too often such groups are aided, abetted, and sometimes instigated by organizations which profit by distrust and dissension. Such groups may succeed in arousing the public to make claims and demands that are entirely unreasonable and which tend to defeat any constructive measures for improving the school.²⁰

On the positive side, there is a strong movement toward the improvement of school-community relationships through the development of community and school councils, the strengthening of parent-teacher organizations, and the enlisting of laymen in participating actively in curriculum-development programs.

Much of the impetus for this development comes from the National Citizens' Commission for the Public Schools which was founded in 1949 with grants from the Carnegie and Rockefeller foundations. A committee of citizens headed by Roy E. Larson at that time began a four-year campaign.

One of the principal objectives of the commission is to get citizens interested in their schools as a prerequisite to improvement. The committee has been instrumental in developing many state committees which in turn have started local committees dedicated to work with school authorities to improve the educational program.²¹

Do Teacher-Education Institutions Play a Dominant Role in Curriculum-Reorganization Programs? Naturally, we would expect

teacher-education agencies to be centers for the development of new theories and practices. It has already been pointed out that at least part of the difficulty in changing teachers' attitudes is due to their academic and professional education. An examination of the program of institutions for the preparation of high-school teachers indicates that they are highly conventional. Usually the traditional separation between subject matter and method is to be found. Methods courses are frequently compartmentalized in terms of *one* aspect of a field. This policy successfully prevents any widespread deviation from existing practices in the high schools. Each subject is compartmentalized and taught by a specialist in that field. There has been little attempt to make the problems actually faced by schools and communities the center of the program. Actual school problems are given a minor emphasis in the rush to impart logical systems of knowledge. Accomplishment is in the form of courses taken and credits earned. Even the movement toward the unification of subject matter which has found rather general acceptance in elementary teacher-education circles has scarcely influenced high-school teacher education. It is difficult to find courses for high-school teachers that give adequate assistance in preparing them to teach core or fused courses.

A recent study indicates that only a handful of teacher-education institutions have set up programs especially designed to prepare core teachers. Among them are New York University, Temple University, and The University of Minnesota.

Under the impetus of the work of the Commission on the Relation of School and College, of the Progressive Education Association, studies were initiated in dozens of states and cities which had for their purpose a more vitalized program. Noteworthy among these were the Southern Association Study which involved many schools, and the Michigan and California Studies. Colleges willingly co-operated with such studies by admitting students without the usual entrance requirements. Evidence tends to show that their confidence was not misplaced and that students admitted under these special dispensations demonstrate ability to do successful college work.

Under the sponsorship of the American Council on Education,

The Commission on Teacher Education carried on similar studies of programs of teacher education.²² The results of these studies, however, have been disappointing. It is doubtful that any great impact upon teacher education was made by them. This is not to claim that teacher education is not improving. There is a tendency to introduce more direct experience into the programs and to develop the social implications of the various fields of knowledge. It is the opinion of the author, however, that if public school officials desire to introduce programs of general education, based upon problems of living rather than subject matter, it is going to be necessary for a considerable period of time to prepare teachers for such programs through in-service education.²³

What Influence Do College-Entrance Requirements Have Upon Curriculum Reorganization? Since the traditional purposes of the high school centered around college preparation, it was to be expected that the high school would be greatly influenced by the demands of the colleges. The work of the Committee of Ten (1893) is a typical example of such influence. With the extension of the high-school program to include more and more of the youth population, college attendance ceased to be the aim of a large majority of students. At the present time, such preparation plays a subordinate role in the average high school. Yet the program continues to be greatly influenced by college-entrance requirements. The group of educators who instituted the *Eight-Year Study* felt that the influence was sufficiently potent to justify a carefully controlled experiment

to determine whether or not students could depart widely from conventional preparation and still succeed in college. The results of that experiment²⁴ indicated that the graduates of the experimental schools did slightly better than graduates of conventional schools who had equal mental ability and similar socioeconomic backgrounds. These results are known to the colleges, and some have no doubt modified their programs as the result, but it will be a long time before the more conservative colleges will even listen to proposals for change.

The influence of the college is not, however, merely a matter of imposition of requirements. It goes much deeper than that. The colleges enjoy enormous prestige. They are the symbols of the time-honored tradition of culture and scholarship. Their pattern of education has the respect of masses of people. Many parents, therefore, expect the high school to provide a similar kind of education for their children, whether or not they intend to go to college. Latin has persisted in high-school curriculums even though the majority of colleges no longer require it for entrance. It has survived largely because it is a respected aspect of the classical tradition which the arts college has conserved and interpreted. Many parents want their children to study Latin because of a respect for this tradition.

But colleges are changing. They are beginning to be concerned with a re-examination of their role in the modern world. And with these changes, they are placing values upon practices in the high school that only a few years ago were frowned upon. For example, general science, general mathematics, and general language courses in high school are closely related in aim to the orientation programs which many colleges have introduced. Not many years ago these subjects were regarded as unacceptable for college entrance.

All evidence points to the fact that the high school should base its program upon the needs, interests, and problems of youth in the modern world. Students adequately prepared for life will undoubtedly succeed in college. Some colleges are beginning to realize this

and are seeking some substitute for the time-honored sixteen Carnegie units as entrance requirements.

SUMMARY

A rapid survey of the broad field of high-school education has now been completed. Deliberately the writer has tried to make some of the weaknesses stand out prominently. Perhaps the attempt has been too successful. It may appear that the high school is a decadent institution and should therefore be supplanted by a new type of school which is free from the traditions that prevent change. No such conclusion is intended. Over against each criticism, a promising trend was pointed out. Once teachers become convinced that reorganization is needed, these trends may be expected to develop rapidly. The following statement of trends is designed to summarize the chapter, and to point up desirable changes that are already evident in school practice.

SOME DISCERNIBLE TRENDS IN HIGH SCHOOL EDUCATION

FROM:

1. The high school as a highly selective institution designed to provide only for the intellectually elite.
2. Tradition, opportunism, drift, and pressures as bases for determining the program.
3. A subject-centered curriculum firmly rooted in traditional subject matter.
4. The daily ground-to-be-covered assignment — recitation procedure imposed upon the student.
5. Tests and examinations that stress facts, information, and specific skills.

TOWARD:

1. A high school that provides vital education for all normal youth up to the limits of their capacities.
2. A dynamic consistent philosophy that plays a distinctive role in a determination of policies and programs.
3. An experience curriculum based upon the needs, interests, abilities of adolescents in our democratic society.
4. Broad comprehension units of work planned co-operatively by teachers and students.
5. An evaluation program that emphasizes thinking, cooperativeness, social sensitivity, creativeness, appreciation, and self-direction.

FROM:

6. School buildings and equipment determined by tradition and a limited concept of efficiency.
7. Complacent self-satisfied teachers fearful of disturbing their sense of security.
8. Indifferent students who are willing to accept the tasks imposed upon them as the easiest way out.
9. Administrators who are fearful of change, and who devote their energies to the maintenance of "a smoothly running machine."
10. Parents who are isolated from the school.
11. Teacher education that perpetuates the academic tradition, and prepares teachers to transmit the social heritage in the form of logically organized subjects.
12. A program dominated by the demands of the colleges.

TOWARD:

6. Buildings and equipment designed in view of the role of the school in the life of youth and the community.
7. Wide-awake progressive teachers, interested in improving the life of the school and community.
8. Students who assume responsibility for participating in the planning of the work and in evaluating its outcomes.
9. Administrators who are primarily educational leaders and who devote their energies to the improvement of learning in the school.
10. Parents organized to provide constructive help in planning the educational program.
11. Teacher education that applies the principles of modern psychology and education in its program; and prepares teachers to meet the needs of youth.
12. A program determined by the needs of students in present-day living.

PART I

THE FOUNDATIONS OF CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

CHAPTER II

THE AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOL: ITS PHILOSOPHY AND PURPOSES

In the previous chapter, a number of pertinent questions were raised concerning the high school as it functions in present-day American life. No attempt was made to apply specific criteria to the practices, but implicit in the discussion was the idea that some practices are more desirable than others. The "discernible trends" which were stated at the conclusion of the discussion undoubtedly reflect the author's conception of the philosophy and purposes which should determine the direction of the high-school program. The purpose of this chapter is to make more explicit the set of values which in the judgment of the author should guide curriculum reorganization in the high school.

THE MEANING OF PHILOSOPHY

It has often been said that every individual has a philosophy, but if by that is meant a consistent, unified set of values or preferences which give meaning to action, we would be forced to admit that the statement is only a half-truth. On all sides we see human action that obviously is based upon trial and error, caprice, or a blind following of tradition, and hence does not have either the quality of unity or consistency. On the other hand, it is probably true that every individual does have certain preferences, certain things that are more highly prized, certain desires that are warmer, more dynamic than others to which he gives allegiance and which somehow form a rough pattern for living. For want of a better name, we

may call this pattern his outlook, or philosophy. It is a far cry, of course, from the chaotic values that characterize the philosophy of the average individual to the aspiration of the philosopher to "comprehend the universe, not simply piecemeal or by fragments, but somehow as a whole." But, fundamentally, the basic idea is the same for the professional philosopher and the so-called "common man." Philosophy involves the cultivation of a set of values which serves as a guide to conduct.

Thus, when we speak of the philosophy of a school we refer to the purposes that give direction to the activities which it sponsors, to the beliefs which the teaching staff holds concerning the development of human personality, to its conception of the nature of the good life in our society. From this point of view, we can readily see that some schools, like individuals, may possess a hodgepodge of conflicting, confused values that lead in no particular direction. Others may be very certain of the goals toward which they are moving, even though such goals might not be accepted as valid by many educators. Still others may be found that are consciously setting goals that are consistent with our democratic tradition.

Some educators hold that a school should have no established philosophy, on the grounds that this would lead to the indoctrination of the students—a practice which is held to be contrary to democracy itself. Students, so it is claimed, should come in contact with many philosophies and then be free to make up their minds what they believe. This point of view has considerable merit if what is meant by philosophy is a set of dogmas which is held to be inviolate and which exclude competing points of view. On the other hand, the insistence that a school have no philosophy, that it must not indoctrinate, that it must let the student make up his mind, *is in effect a philosophy*. We might even call such a point of view, an expression of the philosophy of democracy. Thus philosophy is "dismissed at the front door, only to find its way back in through the kitchen."

THE SEARCH FOR A PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION

It is only in the past two or three decades that school administrators and teachers have become concerned about a philos-

ophy of education which would define the goals of the educative process in any clear-cut fashion. To be sure, the school was to "train for citizenship," to "impart culture," to "prepare for life," but these were vague terms that did not give much direction to the program.

Formal Discipline. Up to the turn of the century, the dominating psychological doctrine maintained that education consisted mainly in the training of the faculties of the mind. What subject matter was best for developing the faculty of reasoning? How best train the memory? How teach the student to observe carefully? These were the sorts of problems debated by educators. The Committee of Ten (1893) held that all subjects *if properly taught would yield the same values*, thereby opening the way for an extension of the curriculum beyond the classics and mathematics. Even though *all* subjects made contributions to the training of these faculties, certain facts and information were considered more useful in life situations. Consequently, subject matter ought to be selected that would be useful in life as well as in disciplining the mind. Even though it was necessary to apply these two criteria to the selection of subject matter, no central directing philosophy was needed.

The Doctrine of Specific Objectives. When experiments proved rather conclusively that faculties as such did not exist, the emphasis shifted to specific training. This movement was aided and abetted by the newer theories of learning which held that all learning was specific and a matter of establishing the appropriate bonds in the nervous system by means of drill. These theories aided enormously in popularizing such subjects as the practical arts and commercial education, as well as science, music, art, agriculture, and physical education. This movement did not, however, emphasize a general frame of reference, a social philosophy to any great extent, but rather stressed specific objectives for each subject, and special methods of teaching in order to achieve the specific objectives. Obviously, this analysis of educational subjects into smaller and smaller elements could not go on forever. In 1918 the famous "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education" were formulated by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education (1912-1920). Through these principles, educators sought to unify the secondary-

school program by insisting that it was the job of the school to prepare for the business of daily living which in a general way was defined as "social efficiency." The "objectives," which amounted to little more than classifications of activities, were as follows: (1) health, (2) command of fundamental processes, (3) worthy home membership, (4) worthy use of leisure, (5) vocation, (6) citizenship, and (7) ethical character. Most school curriculums in the Twenties and early Thirties made specific references to these objectives, and it was common to think of every subject as being valuable to the extent that it contributed to one or more of these "cardinal principles." As a matter of fact, while it would not be fair to say that this formulation was the first attempt¹ to give unity to the secondary-school program through some sort of philosophy, to this commission must be credited the beginnings and popularization of the present-day acceptance of the need for a consistent and unified philosophy for the guidance of administration, curriculum making, methods, and evaluation.

The Cardinal Principles did not greatly assist in giving a sense of direction to the school program. The various school subjects were divided up among the seven principles in some cases, while in others every subject was expected to help to realize all of the "objectives." At any rate no unified point of view emerged.

In the *Educational Policies Commission* issued a very elaborate report² setting forth a detailed set of specific goals under the following headings:

1. The Objectives of Self-realization
2. The Objectives of Human Relationship
3. The Objectives of Economic Efficiency
4. The Objectives of Civic Responsibility

This atomistic analysis perhaps helped to define the general scope of the school's responsibility but it is doubtful that it provided any new sense of direction.

Attempts at Unity. It remained, however, for the educational philosophers to give meaning and significance to this new trend in educational thinking, and we are deeply indebted to John Dewey for persistent efforts over half a century to drive home the necessity for a clarification of thinking about educational values. His *Democracy and Education* published in 1916 was widely discussed and to some extent his ideas were incorporated in the school program, particularly on the elementary level. Other pioneers in the field were B. H. Bode, William H. Kilpatrick, and a large group who were known as pragmatists, instrumentalists, or experimentalists. Recently a new school of thought, lead by Theodore Brameld, calling itself "Social Reconstructionism," has made pronouncements concerning philosophy and purposes.³

DEMOCRACY: THE SOURCE OF EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY

Our conception of the purposes of high-school education inevitably grows out of an interpretation of the meaning of our own particular design for living. This is true of any culture, for it can be shown that the schools reflect in a general way the values that are cherished by a culture. Sometimes the reflection is distorted by uncertainty, confusion, or a superficial understanding of the deeper meaning of the culture, but even though practices are inconsistent and confused, they are usually defended by some interpretation of the cultural ideals that are generally accepted. This, of course, is true of totalitarian countries where the schools serve as an agency for furthering the concepts of racial superiority, supremacy of the state, perpetuation of the power of the dictator, and

other ideas with which we are all too familiar. If the schools of Germany failed in any respect to carry out the program of Hitler and his satellites, it was because those in charge of the schools did not understand them, rather than because there was any opportunity for the expression of ideological differences. And the task was fairly simple since the translation of the Nazi ideology was a matter of inculcating emotional allegiance through a thoroughgoing program of indoctrination, quite divorced from intelligent action or personal preference. In the Soviet Union, according to what little evidence is available, the situation is the same. Freedom of teaching is non-existent. The educational system is but a reflection of the state.

The problem of education in a democratic society is quite different. A pronouncement of the faculty of the College of Education at The Ohio State University makes this point clear:

The fact that the public schools of America are free schools places upon them distinctive responsibilities. They were created by determined people experienced in the ways of freedom. Such people know that the battle for freedom is a continuing one. They know that freedom, difficult to gain, is easily lost. They want to be heard on all important issues. They should be heard, and, in America, they will be heard. But no group can properly insist that its doctrines or opinions be imposed upon the young in the American school.

The public schools of America belong not to boards of education, nor to teachers, nor to groups of influential citizens, but to all the people. No public school can withdraw from or neglect this relationship to the people who support it. School officials, teachers and parents, and the public generally, are partners in a common enterprise: to help each child develop into an independent person who can think for himself, reach his own judgments, choose his own goals, and play his proper part as an effective citizen.

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An educational program that emphasizes these purposes has no place for an authoritarian blueprint, even though this be formulated by wise individuals or well-intentioned groups. The *working plans* of the good society are never the product of an individual or of a clique. No faculty of any school, and no single group in any community, possesses the wisdom, or the authority, or the responsibility to make such plans. The distinctive characteristic of a free world is the encouragement given to all

to participate in the planning of the common life. This is no less true of educational planning than it is of all other planning that free men do.⁴

In order to carry out a policy, such as that enunciated, it is necessary to have a clear understanding of the commitments of democracy, and what those commitments mean for a school program. Counts puts the matter succinctly in the following statement:

We in America, in my judgment, have never given adequate thought to the development of an education that is suited to our democracy, particularly in the present industrial age. If we ever do, the result will be something new in the history of education. It will express at the same time both the emphasis upon knowledge, understanding and enlightenment and the cultivation of the basic ethical values of democracy—devotion to equality individual worth, intellectual freedom, political liberty, democratic processes, general welfare, and the mastery of relevant knowledge. All this must be done in terms of the realities of the contemporary age. The major difficulty which all democracies confront here is *the achievement through the democratic process of an educational program designed to strengthen democracy*⁵

If, then, what we strive to accomplish in education is to make our schools the finest possible exemplification of democratic living, and an agency for the understanding and continuous reinterpretation and refinement of the ideals that characterize our way of life as unique and distinctive, those who are concerned with the program of the school—administrators, teachers, pupils, and community groups must seek to discover the deeper ideals and values to which we as a people give our wholehearted allegiance.

The Meaning of Democracy. What then is democracy? It must be recognized at the outset that there are few basic principles upon which those who seek to interpret democracy wholly agree. This is probably as it should be. Democracy is not merely a form of government but a way of living together in a highly complex society

which is undergoing rapid change. Our institutions, our social and economic programs, our standards of ethics and morality are in a constant state of reinterpretation. Upon the nature of these interpretations, free men are bound to disagree. In fact, it is out of these disagreements that clarity and common plans of action arise. All of the avenues of communication must be kept open.

There is one concept about which we are in fair agreement. *As a people, we believe in the optimal development of human personality.* This thread seems to run through the history of all democratic peoples. It is generally agreed that all forms of social organization, of government, of arrangements for living together ought to foster the fullest and most complete development of *all* individuals. The test of contemplated action ought to be: "Does the proposed action foster the richest possible living for everyone?"

This concept must not be interpreted as rugged individualism, or as *laissez faire*, for individuals in a complex technological, and therefore interdependent, society, cannot develop through the violation or ruthless destruction of the personalities of others. The test, therefore, is in reality a *social* one in the sense that human action must ultimately find its justification in the extent to which such action enhances the living of *all* individuals who are touched by it. This introduces the concept of intelligence which is part and parcel of the way of life which we call democratic. We have faith in the intelligence of the common man, faith that he has the potentialities which when developed make it possible for him to solve his problems by setting up hypotheses, marshaling data, and drawing conclusions that are at least relatively free from caprice or whim. In other words, we have faith that once the ideal of the enhancement of human personality is accepted, it becomes the criterion by means of which the individual *tests* his conclusions and arrives at plans of action. Once we deny that human beings can so act, democracy will languish and die, and in its place must be substituted a form of organization in which those who have power may dictate, for better or for worse, the actions of their fellow-men.

To put the matter briefly, democracy may be interpreted to embrace three interrelated ideals:

1. It is a form of social organization that holds that the optimal development of the individual—of all individuals, is the highest good.
2. The optimal development of *all* can be realized only to the extent that people have faith in intelligence as a method of solving individual and group problems.
3. Man can achieve his highest possible development only through acting in concert with his fellows, each individual sensitive to the effects of his acts upon others.

Democratic Ideals in Action. The test of the value of any theoretical formulation lies in its application. Obviously democracy is a set of ideals which has never yet been fully attained, but we do have sufficient evidence to justify our continued allegiance. To the furtherance of these ideals, we can well apply all our genius as a people. Since democracy is a faith, a promise, we cannot hope ever to *prove* by scientific experiment that it is valid. We can only try in everything we do to further it—at least until we find that in the very nature of human beings the ideals cannot be made to work. At the present time, we have no reason to believe that they cannot be made to work. On the contrary, our experience in living and working together as a people is rich in evidence that the ideals are practicable. The fact that the evidence leaves much room for further improvement is a challenge, rather than a confession of defeat. We need only mention a few of the gains that have been made.

We have been freed from the notion that human nature is a fixed entity—that large masses of human beings are committed inevitably to a particular role in society or to a world of poverty, war, crime, or economic or social stratification. We have evidence that the lot of the individual and of mankind is definitely improvable through the application of intelligence to human living. Regardless of the fact that individual potentialities are vastly different, we are beginning to realize that the environment in which human beings develop has an important bearing upon the development of these potentialities. The concept of the static intelligence quotient belongs to another day. While man is definitely limited by his biological equipment, we have not yet begun to tap the possibilities which are open to him, given the opportunity for him to learn and develop. Thus,

psychology and biology, while they do not imply or underwrite democratic values, do tend to justify our democratic faith in the intelligence of the common man and his ability to build a better world.

Science has provided us with the techniques for improving physical health, for extending the span of living, for so increasing the production of goods that an economy of abundance can now be realized. That science has also provided us with instruments of destruction by means of which civilization may obliterate itself is no indictment of science, but rather is a challenge to our creative intelligence to devise a scheme of controls that will make possible the extension of the fruits of scientific research to all of our people. Skeptical as we may be of the possibilities of bringing about a lasting peace through the UN and its kindred organizations, it does represent a tangible asset in the struggle of the free world to make democracy work

We are evolving a new concept of government that holds that through the appropriate delegation of power, we may use government to improve the socioeconomic conditions of all our people. Slum clearance and housing programs, the extension of electrification to millions of people, extensive highway construction, public-works programs, flood and erosion-control projects, and soil conservation and improvement programs are now commonplace. We accept such extensions as steps toward the realization of a richer life for all—consequently as evidence that real democracy can be made to work.

We no longer consider seriously turning over these vast programs to private interests. Rather the issue is how to carry them out effectively within the framework of the so-called "American system of free enterprise." There are honest differences as to the extent that government should exercise power, but these differences are settled at the ballot box after free and open discussion.

In the field of capital-labor relations too, we have a striking illustration of the new role of government. We have found that the truly democratic techniques of group conference, discussion, and decisions cooperatively arrived at can be made to work. It would be

easy to point to the failure of negotiations, to the selfishness of both capital and labor, to the prevalence of strikes, to unfair employment practices, particularly with respect to racial and minority groups, as evidence of the failure of government regulation, but gradually we are evolving new and more effective procedures, which have for their purpose the extension of the benefits of technology, and which deny the right of any special group or class to act against the public interest.

The fact that we hold free elections; that the press is still free to present *all* the news, and to espouse any political point of view or program of action that is within the broad framework of democracy; that individuals may likewise exercise political, social, and religious freedom, is evidence that it is possible even in times of crisis to respect human personality. And all this in striking contrast to the totalitarian states where these basic freedoms are dead.

The gains that have been made in implementing the ideal of optimal development of all are not automatic, and in a divided world they could easily be lost unless we continue to fight to preserve them. Our public schools, being the principal agency for interpreting and refining our ideals, have a responsible and important role to play.

THE IMPLICATIONS OF DEMOCRACY FOR EDUCATION

In light of the foregoing discussion, it should be clear that the major task of the school is to implement democracy by providing a program designed to help children and youth develop the qualities of effective citizenship. Such a broad definition, however, is not likely to provide much direction. Almost all schools give "lip-service" to democracy but many administrators and teachers fail to see clearly the relationship between their commitment to democracy and their daily practices.

Democracy and School Practices. Even the school policies and practices which seem most arbitrary and autocratic are generally regarded by those who adhere to them as being inside the framework of democracy. In some cases they are even defined in the

name of democracy. The administrator who determines policies with little or no consultation with his teaching staff or the community, does so in the name of efficiency, and on the grounds that teachers do not want to be bothered by the problems of policy making. Teachers themselves frequently support this view. They consider their main job as that of teaching, and demand freedom to carry on the teaching function. The analogy frequently is made between the operation of a school and the management of an industrial organization. Division of labor is held to be necessary and inevitable.

Fixed courses are often imposed upon teachers because teachers are held not to be competent to build their own. This function is asserted to be the job of experts, and consequently cooperative planning is not really called for, at least upon the level of the formulation of basic principles. Often textbooks are selected by a small administrative group for an entire system of schools, or even for a state, on the grounds that the classroom teacher has neither time, ability, nor inclination to assist effectively. Such practices are not regarded by those who follow them as inconsistent with democracy.

Upon the grounds of immaturity, and an inability to foresee the future, subject matter is frequently imposed upon students regardless of interests or felt needs, without any serious attempt to discover the actual problems that face youth in our present confused society. Students are given the opportunity for a great deal of planning of their so-called extra-curricular activities, but it is taken for granted that in the classroom material is to be learned without raising embarrassing questions about whether or not students have had any significant part in determining it. And students generally accept this practice without much question—for daily assignments of ground to be covered and of lessons to be learned give them a feeling of security, in the same manner that the teacher finds security in a smoothly running administrative machine. The whole question of whether or not the practice is democratic is never raised, because it is not considered pertinent.

Other examples of essentially the same thing are to be found in

the imposition of city, county, or state-wide testing programs upon teachers and students. They are justified upon the basis of the need for uniformity and the impossibility of securing any very effective widespread teacher participation. The question is seldom raised as to whether or not the entire practice should be abandoned and another substituted that would provide for active participation. And certainly those who promote and perpetuate such programs would never admit that they were acting undemocratically.

All this is to say that autocracy is not generally practiced because of an *adherence to a totalitarian philosophy* but in the name of a bigger and better democracy. The ends justify the means, it is claimed. Nothing inconsistent is seen, for example, in the use of coercion to secure cooperation. The writer does not wish to create the impression that the use of coercion is wholly incompatible with democratic action, but rather to point out that many school people have not thought clearly about all the implications of their practices. They adhere to democracy in principle, but for one reason or another do not practice it.

This means that administrators and teachers need to clarify their conceptions of the meaning of democracy as a basis for their educational philosophy and practices.

Obviously, if the school is to become a dynamic force in promoting democracy, it must be transformed into an institution that provides the finest possible illustration of democratic living. The best way to learn the ways of democracy is to *live* democratically, and administrators, teachers, students, and parents need to discover and practice cooperative planning and working. The techniques for doing this are well known. Some of them will be discussed in later chapters.

Purposes of the High School Not Exclusive. Actually there are no separate and discrete purposes of high-school education. The so-called *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education* were just as applicable to elementary and college education. It would undoubtedly be a gain if we were to consider education from the kindergarten through the junior-college period as a single educational unit with a common philosophy, but with differing programs at

various levels. Then we could plan a developmental program which would consistently stress democratic values and provide experiences appropriate to various levels of growth, without attempting to set off separate institutions, each with its own staff.

Our present organization is for the most part the result of accident or a mistaken notion of the developmental process. The elementary school traditionally was regarded as the institution for imparting common knowledge and skill.⁶ This conception, however, loses force when we consider that common integrating education is now regarded as an important function at all levels including the college.

The theory that the high school is uniquely designed to meet the needs of adolescents, a developmental stage that was regarded as cataclysmic, rather than more or less gradual, has been in large part abandoned. While modern psychology does not minimize the significant changes which take place at the onset of puberty, there is a tendency to deny that these changes are sufficiently significant to justify the establishment of a separate institution. Indeed, the emotional difficulties at the early adolescent period are probably increased by the drastic changes in curriculum, organization, and personnel which are common in the junior high school. At the very point where the pupil needs the stabilizing influence of one teacher, he is confronted with several, all making special demands upon him. The complexity of the curriculum also presents a serious problem which might easily be eliminated.

It has also been held that special interests, which call for distinctly different treatment, emerge at the high-school level. But, elementary schools also have afforded extensive opportunities for the exploration of special projects and particular interests which flower under the appropriate environment. This fact tends to blur the differences which traditionally have been considered to be significant. The exploratory function of the junior high school, as

⁶ An interesting variation of this conception is developed by H. C. Morrison in his *Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School* (Rev. Ed). Chicago, The University of Chicago Press, 1931, and in other writings. He holds that the elementary period involves the "primary learnings of civilization" in the form of adaptation in reading, writing, and the number system. He thinks that this adaptation could be accomplished in four or five years.

stressed by Briggs, has in like manner been taken over by the elementary school as well as by the senior high school and the junior college.

About all, then, that can be said for the present divisions of our educational program is that they are administrative arrangements which in some cases operate to the detriment of the student. This is not to say that there should not be various groupings within the system in terms of maturation and interests, but there seems to be no basis for grouping that would justify separate and distinct educational purposes and administrative arrangements. When we speak, then, of the philosophy and purposes of the high school, we really mean a philosophy of *education* with particular, though not exclusive, application to the adolescent level.

THE MAJOR PURPOSE OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

In light of the foregoing discussion, the major purpose of the high school is to provide equal opportunities for all youth, regardless of intelligence level, socioeconomic status, race, nationality, or creed, to meet their needs, solve their problems, and extend their interests in such a way as to promote their fullest personal development as responsible citizens of our democratic society. To this end the school centers its program on two inseparable aspects: (1) The individual as a dynamic, growing organism in interaction with an equally dynamic environment, and (2) the cultivation of traits, characteristics, or patterns of behavior which are consistent with the ideals of the culture.

If this broad definition of the role of the high school is accepted certain generalizations follow.

1. *The high-school program should provide for all youth.* Not all people accept this generalization. There are some who still regard the major purpose of the elementary school as the imparting of basic knowledge and skill in the so-called fundamentals. According to them the basic citizenship training should be completed in the elementary period, leaving the high school free to deal with the intellectually elite group that can profit by instruction in the classics, higher mathematics, and technical science. Some form of trade

training, probably in a trade school or in connection with industry, would be provided for the vast body of young people who seem unfitted for academic and scholarly training. This group, being incapable of deep intellectual understanding or analysis, should be indoctrinated into the ideals of the culture and taught to give emotional allegiance to the principles involved. Only a small group, so it is held, are capable of thinking or of creative work, and the school is hampered by having to deal with the great mass of young people who have little intellectual ability and no scholarly interests. It is, therefore, actually detrimental to this larger group to lead them to believe that they may escape the drudgery of hard manual work by going to high school. The disillusionment that follows when they discover that they cannot find satisfaction in the high school is psychologically bad and should be avoided.

That the present high-school program is poorly adapted to the needs of a vast majority of high-school students is not to be denied. The remedy is not to be found in making the high school *more* selective and centering upon the culture of the past to develop appropriate tools for thinking, but rather in changing the character of the entire program to provide common integrating education for all, and differentiated education in terms of special abilities and future vocational and cultural pursuits.

Whether or not we believe that secondary education should provide for all youth is very largely an academic question. Increasing numbers of young people are demanding admission to the secondary school and their demands are not likely to be denied. What we do with them when they come is the all-important consideration.⁷

2. *The curriculum of the high school should be based upon the common and specialized needs, problems, and interests of the student.* This generalization places the emphasis upon the learner as an active, dynamic organism, responding to his own purposes and goals. The traditional school has tended to regard the individual as passive, and learning as a "pouring in" process, a matter of establishing appropriate stimulus-response bonds in the nervous system.

⁷ For an analysis of the extent to which the high schools are providing for all groups, see Chapter I.

Much experimentation was carried on to determine the most effective way of establishing these connections. Since all learning was regarded as being specific, the child was called upon to react to a situation in piecemeal fashion, learning each element separately and then putting them together by a process known as association. Concept formation was merely a matter of discovering the common element in a number of specific situations. It is easy to see how this emphasis led to increased attention to more or less mechanical drill as the major element in the learning process. The S-R bond psychology has been repudiated by most psychologists. However, the present emphasis on the part of certain educators upon discipline through drill and formal exercises, mastery of fundamentals, imposition of learning of logical systems of knowledge in science, mathematics, and language regardless of the interests of the learner, is within the same general pattern and subject to the same criticisms.

In recent years, a growing body of literature has tended to bring about an entirely new emphasis in psychological theory. The human being is seen as an organism of remarkable complexity but of equally remarkable unity. It continuously absorbs, transforms, and expends energy in terms of goals which it strives to achieve or, to put it in other language, in terms of psychosomatic tensions which it seeks to relieve. The physical, emotional, and intellectual aspects of behavior are a unity that cannot, except for purposes of discussion, be separated. They are present in every instance of behavior. Learning is a matter of both analysis and synthesis. The individual in interaction with his environment responds to situations as "wholes," to use the terminology of the Gestalt psychologists. Every phase of personality is vitally dependent upon other phases, and all are acting and reacting at the same time.

The goals of the individual in large measure determine his behavior and these are highly charged with emotional components. The way the individual *feels* about what he does is inseparably bound up with the learning products, as well as with the way he goes about learning. And because the physical cannot be separated from the emotional and intellectual, the context of the learning act is very significant. To divorce intellectual products in the form of

generalizations, facts, and information, from the total process of experiencing is to make of learning a very pale affair indeed.

What we know about the nature of the individual and learning suggests that optimal learning takes place when the individual acts with reference to his interests, his recognized needs, his problems, and his own system of values. This is not to say that the school accepts his goals as satisfactory and valid. It must help him to evaluate his behavior, to create new interests, to sense neglected aspects of growth as well as to reconstruct his design for living.

If the learner and learning are to be so regarded, then the curriculum maker is obliged to study the adolescent-in-his-environment in order to ascertain his needs, problems, and interests.⁸

The curriculum maker must also give attention to developing a program of general education to meet the *common* needs, problems, and interests of students; that is to the education needed by *all* for intelligent citizenship. Only in the process of living and working together can we understand and recreate our world, since personality does not develop in a vacuum. The high school should "thus be concerned with the improvement of the common life; with the conditions for healthful living; the extension of common interests; the sharing of experience; the problems of everyday living in the home and the immediate and wider community, and the personal problems of growing up. This is not to say that the individual is to be lost in the process, or that individual differences are not to be recognized, but rather that the unique contributions of individuals are to be cherished and given appropriate valuation in promoting common concerns. It is only by these means that individuality flourishes and develops optimally. As individual aptitudes and interests are discovered and developed, they play back into the life of the group and enrich it.

Programs of general education in the past and even in the present have been organized around areas of knowledge, rather than around common needs, problems, and interests.⁹

⁸ See Chapter III, IV for the details of such a study, and Chapter VIII for suggestions as to procedures in developing a curriculum based upon needs.

⁹ See Chapter VI for a complete analysis of programs of general education.

The special needs, problems, and interests of students provide the basis for specialized education—vocational and otherwise. This aspect of the curriculum is important because it recognizes the uniqueness of the individual—a concept so highly prized in our society.¹⁰

3. *The modes of behavior that are characteristic of democratic living at its best should be utilized as guides to the development of youth.* The Ohio State University School utilizes democratic values as “threads of continuity that give unity to all experience, and hence are the concern of all teachers in every phase of the life of the school.” The statement of these threads, drawing heavily on the formulation of the Committee on the Relation of Science to General Education,¹¹ is as follows:

1. *Developing Social Sensitivity.* Experiences which develop an awareness and responsiveness to human values should be the constant concern of the school. Democracy is based upon the mutual respect for personality, by which is implied that each person will respect differences in social or racial groups and strive to elicit the unique contributions of others to the common good.
2. *Developing Cooperativeness.* The school program should provide continuous opportunities for young people to work together toward common needs. This includes cooperative planning of programs in every area of school life, and the carrying out and evaluation of such programs.
3. *Developing the ability and zeal to utilize the method of intelligence in solving all problems of human concern.* The method of intelligence in a narrow sense includes the following factors: (a) Recognizing problems, (b) formulating hypotheses, (c) discovering and organizing data, (d) arriving at tentative conclusions and acting upon them. In a wider sense it also means that the individual will strive to extend thinking to as many areas of living as possible, to develop a consistent pattern of behavior, and to regard truth as tentative and experimental, rather than as absolute.
4. *Developing creativeness.* Insofar as possible, the school should provide experiences which demand novel adjustments to situations rather than those which emphasize routine and repetition. Good citizenship

¹⁰ See Chapter VII for an elaboration of this concept.

¹¹ See *Science in General Education*. D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1938, pp. 42-53 *passim*.

calls for individuals who have the ability to synthesize elements of experience, which seemingly are unrelated, into unified wholes. Such experiences are not confined to the arts but should characterize every area of school life.

5. *Developing skills in democratic living.* Students should learn to choose leaders in terms of the qualities needed for the particular job at hand. All students should have opportunities for leadership at their level and all should be able to cooperate with leaders. All should have a growing understanding of how to enlist effective participation for common ends by enabling all to take part in defining goals and in selecting their own part in working toward goals. Leaders should become increasingly skillful at distributing responsibilities in terms of the abilities, interests and preferences of individuals so that all may participate effectively. Before the end of the high school years these experiences in democratic participation should have reached out beyond the school into the community at many points.
6. *Interpreting democracy.* It is not enough that young people should live democratically. They should know what they are about, in the sense that they should become increasingly aware of the value of such living, not only within the school but in life outside of the school. This does not imply dreary "talks" by the teacher on the meaning of democracy, but rather that the democratic life of the school shall be so dynamically related to life outside that the students will be led to understand its meaning, and seek to extend it to all situations in which they are involved.
7. *Developing self-direction.* All experiences should be such as to aid in the process of "growing up," by which is meant the gradual development of mature relationship with others; that is, the cultivation of a growing sense of responsibility for one's own development in the light of a consistent set of values.¹²

The following is an attempt to present the characteristics of democratic living in terms of "pupil behavior."¹³

¹² *The Philosophy and Purposes of the University School.* Columbus, Ohio, The Ohio State University, 1948, pp. 9-10.

¹³ Vernon E. Anderson, Paul R. Grim, and William T. Gruhn. *Principles and Practices of Secondary Education.* Copyright, 1951, by The Ronald Press Company, New York. The authors took the report of the Educational Policies Commission, entitled *Policies for Education in American Democracy.* Washington, D.C., National Education Association, 1946 as the basis for the analysis. The authors state that the list is not complete but is illustrative of the analysis that might be useful to all teachers—regardless of the areas in which they teach.

SPECIFIC OUTCOMES FOR THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

Attitudes

1. The pupil accepts responsibility for his contributions to group welfare.
2. He respects the rights of others and treats them with the same respect he demands for himself.
3. He accepts the consequences of his own actions.
4. He adjusts his own behavior to the decisions of the group.
5. He is open-minded to new ideas.
6. He welcomes honest differences of opinion and respects others' points of view.
7. He feels free to express his own beliefs without fear of reprisals.
8. He bases judgment on reliable information.
9. He withholds judgment on important issues until he has all the facts.
10. He considers the effect of his actions on other members of the group.
11. He respects duly constituted authority.
12. He works for the solution of problems in his own school community and for the advancement of the welfare of others.
13. He enters freely into service activities of his community.
14. He judges an individual on his own merits as a person rather than on the basis of nationality, creed, race, or economic level.

Appreciations

1. The pupil appreciates the values to the individual of democratic participation in school affairs
2. He enjoys reading about the social scene and desires to understand the problems that confront society.
3. He appreciates the American heritage of freedom.
4. He admires the achievements of all cultural groups and appreciates their contributions to American life.
5. He shows sympathy and sensitivity to human misery and want.
6. He has a wide interest in art, music, science, history and literature.
7. He enjoys reading good books and periodicals.
8. He has a desire to learn and explore.
9. He appreciates beauty in his surroundings.
10. He enjoys expressing himself creatively in some form.
11. He finds pleasure in participating with others in recreation.
12. He is interested in enlarging his vocabulary.

Understandings

1. The pupil realizes the need for limitation of individual and group freedom in order that greater liberties may be enjoyed by all.

2. He realizes that democracy is in a constant process of adjustment and that democracy in this country has not been fully achieved.
3. He understands that the individual who places the interests of his racial, cultural, religious, economic or social group above the good of society as a whole endangers his own freedom.
4. He understands that democratic living includes full opportunity for political, economic, social, and religious rights.
5. He recognizes the necessity of law in establishing and maintaining an orderly society.
6. He realizes the value of group effort in arriving at decisions.
7. He realizes that controversial issues are best solved through open discussion and objective study.
8. He understands that minority rights must be protected within majority rule.
9. He understands that citizenship in a democracy demands a responsible, actively participating people.
10. He realizes that intelligent effort is essential to success.
11. He understands that harmonious participation in the home and family life are basic to healthy and desirable social relationships.
12. He understands that nations must forego national sovereignty to achieve world cooperation and peace.

Skills

1. The pupil is able to analyze data, observe relationships and note causes and effects in arriving at a solution.
2. He selects reading materials with increasing discrimination.
3. He is able to locate and use sources of information.
4. He is able to organize information effectively.
5. He can draw logical and reasonable conclusions from his investigations.
6. He is able to distinguish between fact and opinion.
7. He has the ability to make intelligent choices for himself.
8. He can work independently.
9. He is able to work cooperatively with others.
10. He is able to express ideas effectively in written and oral form.
11. He can discriminate reasonably between socially desirable and undesirable behavior.¹⁴

Quite different from the above rather atomistic analysis is the psychological formulation of Cole and Bruce.¹⁵ They attempt to

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 36-38.

¹⁵ Lawrence E. Cole and William F. Bruce. *Educational Psychology*. Copyright, 1950, by World Book Company, New York.

"portray not what the American is, but rather what his leaders of thought and education aspire to have him become.¹⁶ These are the values which Americans believe produce the highest order of human worth. This portrayal they refer to as the "Mature Person." The characteristics of such a person are discussed under three main headings: (1) The Mature Person's Energy Resources, (2) The Mature Person's General Effective Intelligence, and (3) The Mature Person's Social-Ethical Goals. In the *first* category—Energy Resources—are discussed such characteristics as spontaneity, courage, and affection. In the second—Effective Intelligence, the "core" of which is "self-knowledge, insight into one's own life cycle, and a frank awareness of one's liabilities and assets," the authors state that the mature person possesses "a body of reasonably accurate knowledge of men and their affairs, an understanding of the social conditions and problems which he and his neighbors and fellow citizens confront in community, nation and world" . . . "Intellectually he is a Whole Person, with a high degree of integrative power which enables him to synthesize widely separated areas of experience." In the *third* category—Social-Ethical Goals—the mature person is described as a man who "is a devotee of progress. He believes that by taking thought man can build a better world in which to live; within the limits of nature's bounty, he is master of his own destiny" . . . "A goal seeker and a goal creator, he is constantly setting new objectives for himself and his fellows. This is to keep them alive, prod them forward. . . . The motive power for life lies not only in the drive of organic human needs, but in the anticipated goals of the personal and social world as well."¹⁷

Still another formulation grew out of the Citizenship Education Study¹⁸ of which Stanley Dimond was director. This group set up "criteria for democratic living" under three categories as follows: (1) The Individual and His Rights in a Democratic Society, (2) The Individual and His Obligations in a Democratic Society, and (3) The Means Available to the Individual in a Democratic Society.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 43.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 44-47, *passim*.

¹⁸ See *Democratic Citizenship and Development of Children*. Citizenship Education Study. Detroit, Mich., Detroit Public Schools, 1949.

Each of these categories is broken down into modes of behavior.

The purpose of presenting the numerous procedures for giving *operational meaning to the vague term, "democratic living," or "democratic way of life,"* is to indicate the need for providing a sense of direction for the high-school program. As was pointed out earlier, nearly all people give lip-service to the idea that the schools should develop democratic citizenship. If this idea is to be more than a pious hope, curriculum-development groups need to give a good deal of attention to finding the highest level of common agreement upon the characteristics of behavior which define effective democratic citizenship. When this is accomplished, we are one step nearer a school program that actually promotes democracy.¹⁹

The illustrations presented vary considerably in their approaches to the problem. It is probably not possible or even desirable to attempt a complete, detailed analysis of democratic behavior. On the other hand, broad high-level abstractions mean very little. What is needed is a formulation that recognizes the unitary character of human behavior, and at the same time gives clues as to important aspects of democratic behavior that will enable administrators, teachers, and students to find a sense of direction and to know when they are following it. Perhaps of the various illustrations given, the formulation of the University School best serves this purpose. Such terms as reflective thinking, cooperativeness, social sensitivity, creativeness, tolerance, self-direction, and the like lend themselves quite readily to definition and illustration, and when used in connection with the basic ideals of democracy discussed earlier, should provide a framework upon which a democratic program may be built.

SUMMARY

- A. The program of the high school should be based squarely upon the values of democratic living and the characteristics of personality which are essential to effective democratic citizenship.
- B. Democracy may be interpreted to embrace three interrelated ideals:

¹⁹ See Chapter XV for statements of philosophy and purposes which have been developed by schools.

1. It is a form of social organization that holds that the *optimal development of the individual—of all individuals—is the highest good.*
 2. The optimal development of *all* can be realized only to the extent that people have faith in intelligence as a method of solving individual and group problems.
 3. Man can achieve his highest possible development only through acting in concert with his fellows, each individual sensitive to the effects of his acts upon others.
- C. The ideals of democratic living may be translated into characteristics of personality or modes of behavior which give direction to the learning process. Such terms as reflective thinking, cooperativeness, social sensitivity, tolerance, creativeness, and self-direction are appropriate to describe these characteristics.
- D. Democracy requires that educational provision be made for promoting the optimal development of *all* American youth regardless of intelligence level, race, creed, or socioeconomic status.

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CHAPTER III

DEMOCRATIC VALUES AND LEARNING

The concepts of teaching and learning which the teacher holds are inseparably bound up with the values or goals which are considered to be of prime importance. For example, if the teacher believes that the acquisition of facts and information are the most important outcomes in learning, then it follows that his concept of teaching will be that of repetitive drill, and he is likely to subscribe to a theory of learning that is congenial to his practices. If the teacher believes that the development of independent critical thinking is a major value in our democratic society, naturally he will organize the work of the classroom in terms of problems to be solved, issues to be considered, plans to be made and executed. Consequently he is likely to subscribe to a quite different theory. If the teacher believes that obedience to orders is of great significance in citizenship education, he will stress getting students to follow directions without question. Automatic responses will therefore be prized. Logically such a teacher should support the Connectionist school of thought. But if the teacher holds firmly to the idea that cooperative planning is a value inherent in democratic living, obviously he will organize the life of the classroom in terms of cooperatively developed problems and projects. This implies a more dynamic organismic approach.

Probably most teachers are not conscious of the learning theory which underlies their practices. They operate in terms of the exigencies of the situation. This is not to say, however, that teachers

should not be students of the learning process and its implications for democratic citizenship.

THE PSYCHOLOGIST AND VALUES

The teacher can learn from psychology the most efficient ways of achieving *any* of the ends suggested above, but he is not likely to learn from psychology the *ends* toward which he ought to direct his energies, for most psychologists maintain a strict neutrality on the question of what is of most worth in human behavior. This is well illustrated in the following quotation:

Our standards of good and bad interfere with the cold detachment that science requires. We look at a motion picture of an ape or of a child and are prevented from seeing it in psychological terms by our tendencies to see the creature as repulsive or cute. We see someone behaving in an immoral way and our distaste prevents us from trying to understand the basis of the act. We feel only horror and disgust that anyone could be so depraved. Observe, over a short period of time, how frequently you find yourself evaluating someone's behavior, judging it as "good" or "bad." Such evaluations are not a part of psychology. They provide insight only into *your* standards of conduct. They do not help you in understanding the behavior of the individual judged.¹

Carried to its logical conclusion, the position stated above implies that the laws or theories governing human behavior are independent of political, social, or economic ideologies, and from human aspirations to the good life. In this sense what the psychologist tells us about the nature of learning can be used to further any kind of individual or social values. In effect, the psychologist says, "You decide what values you want to achieve, and I will tell you how to bring about the changes in behavior that are implied by the values selected."

The values, then, which are held by the educator, must be determined *before* the psychologist may help him to any great extent in determining appropriate means of attaining them. The preceding chapter sought to suggest some characteristics of the democratic

¹ Edwin R. Guthrie and Allen L. Edwards. *Psychology: A First Course in Human Behavior*. Pp. 8-9. Copyright 1949, by Harper and Brothers, New York.

school which should give direction to the program. The present task is to discover what help can be secured from the psychology of learning in bringing about the changes in behavior essential for democratic citizenship.

WHAT IS LEARNING?

There are many definitions of learning, none of them entirely satisfactory. Perhaps Hilgard's cautious definition is the most satisfactory one:

Learning is the process by which an activity originates or is changed through training procedures (whether in the laboratory or in the natural environment) as distinguished from changes by factors not attributable to training.²

Actually as Hilgard points out,³ the learning process is always an inference from *performance*. The organism can now do what he could not do previously. But the mere observation of performance is inadequate to support the inference that such performance is the result of *learning*. For example, it may be charged to maturation, as when a child "learns" to walk, or when a bird "learns" to fly. Such acts cannot be attributed to training procedures. Another interpretation which must be placed upon the definition is the change in performance which results from work-fatigue or the use of narcotics. These changes in performance, according to Hilgard, cannot properly be attributed to learning.

The task of the educator then is three-fold. He must determine what kinds of performance are desirable from the standpoint of the culture and the individual's own value system. He must recognize these performances when they are present, and he must seek to determine and provide the conditions under which the desired performances are most likely to take place. The first task involves philosophy. The second task is largely one of determining appropriate evaluation procedures, and the third involves an understanding of the nature of the individual and the learning process.

² Ernest R. Hilgard, *Theories of Learning*. P. 4. Copyright, 1948, by Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., New York.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 4 ff.

THEORIES OF THE LEARNING PROCESS

The Mind-Substance Theory. Deeply embedded in our culture is the so-called "mind-substance" theory. Even though it is outmoded as an effective theory of learning, it is worth discussing briefly, because consciously or unconsciously it is basic to a considerable amount of what passes for education in the high school. Perhaps Bode has done more than any other educator to bring this time-honored theory out into the open and examine it critically. He explains the position in his own inimitable fashion:

There are facts in this world of ours that are not reducible to terms of motion and arrangement, however much they may be connected with material processes. Such facts are our aches and pains, our aspirations and frustrations, our appreciations and purposes and volitions. These are not just by-products of matter; by definition they cannot be produced by matter at all. They have their source or ground in different kinds of reality. This reality exists in its own right, so to speak, which means that it cannot be reduced to a form of matter and that it can operate in relative independence of the laws of mechanics. . . . We are profoundly convinced that man is made of different stuff from the inanimate things by which he is surrounded. In the language of Holy Writ, he was created a "living soul." Inanimate objects are the slaves of circumstance, but man can choose his goal and bend circumstances to his will. He can foresee the future and shape his present conduct with reference to what is yet to come. To him accordingly, it is given to have dominion over the earth and to be master of his own destiny. As Voltaire once remarked, this little being, five feet tall, can undertake to constitute himself an exception to the laws of the universe.⁴

It is easy to see why this doctrine has such a widespread and popular appeal. It places man on a plane above the "sticks and stones." It is congenial to the traditional concept of culture. It provides an easy theological explanation of the survival of the human soul. It provides an escape from the baffling problems and frustrations of the mundane world.

How does learning take place under this conception of the nature

⁴ Boyd H. Bode, *How We Learn*. Pp. 20-21, *passim*. Copyright, 1940, by D. C. Heath and Company, Boston.

of mind? Traditionally the doctrine of formal discipline provided a complete answer. Such qualities as remembering, perceiving, observing, reasoning were cultivated by the exercise of corresponding faculties into which the "mind" was divided. The particular skill, understanding, or information to be learned was not in itself of major importance. The abiding value was the power which the particular quality gained by effective exercise. Thus the subject-matter of education gained its importance, not because it helped the individual to meet a need or solve a problem, but because it provided mental discipline.

This doctrine provided an easy answer to the charge that much of what is learned is soon forgotten, for as Bode suggests, according to this doctrine, education is what is left after what we have learned has been forgotten. The power of reasoning, developed through the study of Latin or mathematics, can readily be transferred to a situation involving reason in everyday life.

Anderson sums up succinctly the tenets of the position as follows:

1. All individuals have the potentialities to become educated.
2. Motivation must be raised from the level of material needs to those of spiritual needs. Needs which the psychologist might label as basic must often be uprooted, and value systems that are often non-material must be established.
3. Practice or drill has significance, not so much because it establishes right responses, but because it disciplines the individual to habits of work.
4. Education and transfer are in a sense synonymous. The educated person has not necessarily learned the specific responses essential for making adjustments to the exigencies of life because he intuitively senses what will be the appropriate conduct. General ability to think marks the educated man.⁵

So far as psychology is concerned, this doctrine is dead. This is far from saying, however, that the educational practices which flourished under the reign of formal discipline are no longer current. As a matter of fact, the perennial demand for a return to the classics

⁵ G. Lester Anderson, "Theories of Behavior and Some Curriculum Issues," *The Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXXIX, 134-135 (March, 1948). Copyright, 1948, by Warwick and York, Inc.

can be justified only on the basis of this outmoded psychological doctrine. Likewise much of what passes as "liberal education" and the values which are expected to be derived from it has its roots in the mind-substance theory, although the proponents of such programs would deny the charge vigorously.

If we reject the once respectable and still popular "mental discipline" theory of learning, what is to take its place? Is there a single unitary theory which is so well documented by scientific experiment that it is possible to accept it dogmatically as a guide to the determination of instructional procedures? Unfortunately this seems not to be the case, for as Hilgard points out:

While the situation is not as bad as the parade of points of view makes it out to be, it is still rather unsatisfactory. There are no laws of learning which can be taught with confidence. Even the most obvious facts of improvement with practice and the regulation of learning under reward and punishment are the matters of theoretical dispute.⁶

What are the principal issues upon which psychologists disagree? Perhaps the best way of approaching this problem is through a brief examination of the two major theories which now dominate the field.⁷

Association Theories of Learning. There is one group of psychologists known by various designations, such as *Connectionists*, *Associationalists*, *Functionalists*, and *Conditioned-response psychologists* who take as their point of departure the scientific doctrine that *the whole is the sum of its parts*. Edward Lee Thorndike, who has been called the father of modern psychology, sought over a period of almost half a century to document what became known as the S-R bond theory of learning. The S in the bond refers to any situation or state of affairs outside or inside the organism. The R refers to a state of affairs which is related to some S in sequence or in a more dynamic manner. The symbol S-R indicates the relationship. The connections or bonds which are formed explain all

⁶ Ernest R. Hilgard, *Theories of Learning*. New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1948, p. 326.

⁷ For much of the presentation of these theories, the writer is indebted to Ernest R. Hilgard, *ibid.*

types of animal or human learning. Thus education consists of presenting appropriate situations (stimuli) to the organism. The observable response (or behavior) is what results. Learning consists in "stamping in" the appropriate bonds and "stamping out" the undesirable ones. From this simple explanation, Thorndike deduced his famous "Laws of Learning" which dominated educational practices for many years. Even reasoning, or the operation of the "higher mental processes" is accounted for in the same manner. It merely involves more bonds. The situation is just more subtle, not different, therefore the response is more difficult to interpret.

Returning again to the part-whole dictum, it is easy to see how the Thorndikean psychology fits in. Learning is purely mechanical. The organism operates like a machine, in wholly predictable ways. As Hilgard points out:

Scientists believe the behavior of organisms to be lawful, at least within limits set by statistical approximations. In favoring some sort of cause and effect sequences, psychologists act like any other scientists. There is, however, a range of choice in the selection of the physical model after which we seek to design the laws to be used in psychological explanations. One physical model is provided by machines with rigid parts—with levers, pulleys, gears, motors—machines like typewriters or cash registers. When a key is pushed the consequence is definitely predictable. The models may vary enormously in complexity, including automatic telephone switchboards and computing bombsights, but the principle is the same.³

It can readily be seen that this theory of learning discounts the traditional explanation of transfer of training through the exercise of faculties of the mind. As a matter of fact it reduces transfer to a purely mechanical process limited to those situations which have within them "identical elements" which function in the same manner as interchangeable parts on two different makes of machine gun.

This type of explanation of transfer, which of course is consistent with the general position, gives enormous impetus to mechanical classroom procedures. Emphasis upon drill, memorization, breaking down the whole into parts in complicated situations. In short, it has tended to promote the concept of a relatively static organism re-

³ *Ibid*, p. 14.

sponding in predictable ways to an environment that is manipulated by the teacher.

It would be a mistake to assume that there is complete agreement within the school labelled "*Associationism*" or "*Connectionism*." There are wide differences within the category, ranging from the purely mechanistic explanations of Thorndike to the functionalism of Woodworth.⁹

The important point in the discussion is the preference which this school of thought has for the analytical, environmental approach.

It is difficult, if not impossible, to relate specific practices in education to this theory of learning. It is doubtful that teachers as a whole consciously go about applying a systematic psychological position to their classroom procedures. In one way or another, however, the following practices are congenial to or closely associated with the theory of learning of the Associationists.

1. The daily recitation system with its emphasis upon the acquisition of facts and information
2. Excessive reliance upon standardized tests as a basis of evaluation
3. So-called objective marking systems in terms of normal curves
4. The fixed curriculum determined by job or activity analysis, imposed upon the learner without giving due attention to his needs and interests
5. Excessive reliance upon repetitive drill as a basis for learning at the expense of the use of reflective thinking
6. Teacher domination of the classroom at the expense of cooperative teacher-student planning
7. Excessive emphasis upon external rewards and punishment as a basis for motivation

On the credit side may be placed the following:

1. Encouragement of the use of observed behavior as a basis for determining the extent to which learning has taken place
2. Introduction of the concept of functionalism into learning
3. Emphasis upon individual differences, particularly with respect to differences in rates of learning

⁹ Hilgard places the following psychologists, among others, in this general school of thought: Edward L. Thorndike, E. R. Guthrie, Clark L. Hull, B. F. Skinner, Harvey Carr and Robert Woodworth.

4. Destruction of the "formal discipline" theory of learning
5. Encouragement of social analysis as one basis for curriculum making

Field Theories of Learning. Paralleling the significant development of the mechanistic interpretations of learning by the Thorndikean school of psychology was another and opposed theory which took its cue from the conception of *the whole as something quite different from the sum of its parts*. Max Wertheimer is credited as having first announced the theory in Germany in 1912. It gained little attention, however, until the appearance in English translations of Kurt Koffka's *Growth of the Mind* in 1924 and Wolfgang Kohler's *Mentality of Apes* in 1925. The new theory was known as *Gestalt* and was the forerunner of organismic psychology as expounded by such psychologists as Kurt Lewin, R. H. Wheeler, Edward C. Tolman, Karl S. Lashley, and Norman R. F. Maier. Again it must be pointed out that there are wide differences among this group of psychologists, but that there are common generalizations, which suggest some unity among them.

This group, in contrast to the Associationists, holds that the organism does not function like a mechanical device—a machine. Rather it functions as a "whole"—no part of which can be changed without changing the "whole." As Hilgard points out:

A different model is provided by whirlpools, candle flames, and soap bubbles, in which the parts are related to the whole in a less rigid manner. You can scoop a bucketful of water out of a whirlpool without changing it. The whirlpool, the candle flame and soap bubble are illustrations of dynamic equilibria, just as physical as the machine mentioned earlier, yet suggesting quite different analogies . . . [the field psychologist] is definitely on the side of the models of dynamic equilibria. Living things, unlike machines, are constantly interchanging their substance with the environment; they remain "the same" only because of a patterning or organization which persists in the midst of change. . . . By adopting the model of dynamic equilibria, the field psychologist warns against any effort to comprehend the totality of behavior in terms of component parts. The whole must always be viewed as a system, to which the parts are subordinate.¹⁰

¹⁰ Ernest R. Hilgard, *Theories of Learning*, New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1948, pp. 14-15.

This emphasis upon the whole being more than the sum of its parts has very important implications for evolving a satisfactory theory of learning. First of all, the total situation in which learning takes place becomes important, for learning becomes a process of continuous interaction between the organism and the environment. The relationships which exist between the organism and the environment are therefore in a constant state of change. This requires considerable modification of the explanation of learning as the "stamping in" of appropriate S-R bonds for the stimulus is in a constant state of change, since the stimulus must be interpreted in terms of relationships. Thus repetitive drill becomes less important than drill associated with meanings which provide the materials for reconstructing the total situation. Theoretically there is no such thing as repetition. Second, the emphasis shifts from mechanical to insightful behavior. Even the simple animal experiments of the Gestaltists stress the significance of insight, which is defined as that point in the learning process at which the learner perceives "the how and why of a situation." Kohler's apes, for example, solved the problem of reaching food by putting two sticks together. When the sticks were perceived in their relationship to the goal of food getting, the animal is said to have insight. At this point the total situation becomes a reorganized whole. In a very rudimentary way, this kind of learning is an illustration of thinking—a process which is so highly prized in our democratic culture. As a consequence of this emphasis the whole problem of transfer takes on new significance. Instead of the simple mechanical explanation of transfer as the recognition of identical elements, the reconstruction of the situation in terms of old and new meanings (insights) is, in a sense, transfer. The implication of this explanation is clearer. The learner is capable of transfer just to the extent that he brings to a given situation a rich store of meanings. Third, and perhaps most important, the theory places more emphasis upon the learner as a dynamic whole who is capable of acting in terms of goals which serve as a means of giving direction to the process of a continuous reorganization of the field which, of course, includes the previous experiences of the learner. Forty years of Gestalt experimentation seems to confirm Dewey's

life-long emphasis upon learning as an active process, and upon education as the "continuous reconstruction of experience."

Unfortunately, the field theory of learning has yet to explain fully all of the problems of learning. In spite of much discussion the precise nature of insight is not fully understood. There remains something of an air of mystery about it which could easily imply some mystical element of human behavior—an implication which the field theorists emphatically deny. Furthermore, the field theorists fail to take cognizance of the fact, which is stressed by the associationists, that there are relatively mechanical components of behavior that seem to be the result of trial and error or conditioning. As Cole and Bruce state:

In some respect the Gestaltists have shown us what learning *ought* to be like. Instead of the slow plodding, repetitious learning of the conditioning experiment, we *ought* to find a way of handling our learners and materials that would lead to flashes of insight. Instead of arranging tasks which favor a blind adjustment to particular cues, we should seek wherever possible to create situations which permit the learner to discover *essential relationships*. Then we should not need to fear lest our training fail to transfer to new settings where the cues are slightly altered. Instead of poorly understood facts, difficult to grasp and organize, and then swiftly forgotten, we should present such clearly organized patterns, such meaningful wholes, that, once grasped, they become a permanent part of the learner's equipment. Instead of insisting, however, that all learning actually conform to this idea, we shall make progress by asking the pointed question: "Precisely what are the conditions which stand in the way of this insightful ideal?" ¹¹

This quotation points up the thesis that the psychologist, much as he may desire to do so, does not operate apart from a system of values unless he is entirely oblivious of the "field" which surrounds him. He orders his experiments, formulates and tests his hypothesis in the light of what to him seem to be desirable outcomes. Consequently as we examine theories of learning we are likely to ask: "Are the values which we cherish attainable in the light of what is

¹¹ Lawrence E. Cole and William F. Bruce, *Educational Psychology*. P. 483. Copyright, 1950, by World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson.

known about the learner and the learning process?" "What are the most effective learning procedures for achieving our goals?"

Unfortunately, the questions cannot be unequivocally answered by an appeal to any one school of psychological thought. On the other hand, there is much common ground among the various theories of learning, and this makes possible the setting up of some basic generalizations about learning which are helpful in evolving a general methodology for guiding learning in school.

SOME BASIC GENERALIZATIONS CONCERNING LEARNING

A. Learning is an active process which involves the dynamic interaction of the learner and his environment. This generalization is now commonly accepted. The learner is no longer regarded as a passive organism which responded to external stimuli in a mechanical manner. As early as 1928, V. T. Thayer, after examining the psycho-biological evidence concerning learning, stated:

The child's nature is not a mystic scroll wrapped and sealed waiting the favorable circumstances which will enable it to unroll in a preordained manner. Nor is the child's nature to be conceived of as alien material which must be worked over according to preconceived plans.¹²

Considered in isolation, this generalization does not move us very far in the direction of evolving an acceptable methodology for education. It does, however, dispel the notion—long prevalent in education—that the school can successfully impose a fixed body of subject matter upon youth without taking into account his nature, needs, and previous experiences. On the other hand, those who place the learner on a pedestal—relying upon some process of unfolding of innate capabilities for a sense of direction—are guilty of an equally disastrous distortion.

A closer look at this generalization reveals the enormous complexity of the task of education. To be freed from erroneous con-

¹² V. T. Thayer, *The Passing of the Recitation*. Boston, D. C. Heath and Company, 1928, p. 118.

ceptions of the learner and the learning process is a gain, but it does not provide help in the redirection of learning.

It must be recognized that, given a human being with enormous capacities for acquiring new modes of behavior, the problem still remains as to what values, understandings, habits, and skills will be most effective as he grows toward maturity.

The learnings which will be acquired are profoundly affected by the culture. The environment is a potent influence. From the biological point of view, the environment may provide the conditions for meeting the purely physical needs which have to do with physical survival and development. The environment must provide favorable conditions for good health—food, shelter, recreation. If these conditions are not present, normal physical growth cannot take place, emotional needs, such as feelings of security, achievement, belongingness, and affection are thwarted. This raises the whole problem of the social responsibility of the culture for providing the conditions for healthful living.

But the culture affects learning in even more significant ways. The child is born into a culture which is a going concern. On every hand he is confronted with an environment in which accepted values and patterns of behavior strike at him and determine to a large extent his responses—that is, what he learns.

If the environment is relatively simple, he may master the modes of behavior required for mature living in that environment in a relatively short period of time. In primitive societies induction into the culture may be accomplished without much "formal" education, for very early the child participates directly in the life of the adult community. It would be fair to state that he gradually acquires the set of values, philosophy, or life style—call it what you will—that is characteristic of that culture.

In complex modern societies, the process of acculturation is more complicated. Science and technology have profoundly affected the sheer mechanics of living. In some respects the environment demands less of the learner since so many tasks associated with the meeting of biological needs are cared for by others. The period of infancy is prolonged. In most respects, however, the environment

demands more, since the race experience becomes more highly organized and hence less accessible. Long preparation is needed to develop the attitudes and understandings and to acquire the habits and skills that are considered essential to effective citizenship.

The problem of growing up is especially complicated and difficult in our democratic culture because our values are less clearly defined than in a totalitarian culture. The child is confronted with a confused environment, particularly in a period of great national and international stress. Personal values are confused because they are dynamic rather than static. Furthermore, a definite and precious aspect of our value system is the belief in the capacity of young people to resolve their conflicts through intelligence, rather than to have attitudes and understandings indoctrinated by adults. There will be more discussion of this point later on.

B. Learning is most effective when the learner is motivated by goals which are intrinsic to the activity. This generalization is closely related to the one discussed above which states that learning takes place when the learner and the environment are involved in dynamic interaction. Equilibrium is disturbed, and the organism acts in an attempt to restore it. We are now concerned with the factors which motivate the learner to act in the direction of achieving his goal. In this sense, goal is defined as the "end state" which gives direction to behavior in a given learning situation.

The following definitions may be helpful to clarify the generalization:

The relationship between goals and the learning tasks related to them may be described as intrinsic or extrinsic, depending on the logical relationship between the task and the goal.

The relationship between task and goal may be said to be *intrinsic* if the incentive conditions are functionally or organically related to the activity. Thus the satisfaction derived from hearing a program over a self-constructed radio set is a satisfaction derived from putting the radio to its intended use. This is an intrinsic satisfaction, because the goal is inherent in the successful completion of the task of construction.

The relationship between task and goal may be said to be *extrinsic* if the incentive conditions are artificially or arbitrarily related to the task. Thus if a prize is to be awarded to the first boy to complete his radio,

the desire for the prize is extrinsically related to the task of radio-building.

Because motivational situations are complex, the relation between the task and goal is often at once intrinsic and extrinsic.¹³

All theories of learning stress the significance of motive. The Organismic theory, however, tends to give greater emphasis to the total situation in which learning takes place, because of the importance of concomitant learnings. In the illustration quoted above, the accomplishment of building the first radio is, in and of itself, less significant than emotional satisfaction derived by the youngster from having his need met. The teacher would of course also be interested in the extent to which the attitudes, understandings, and skills learned are likely to be utilized in meeting new situations. This is more likely to happen if the motivation is intrinsic to the task.

It is difficult to organize the life of the school in a highly complex society in which there are of necessity many deferred values, in such a way as to promote intrinsic motivation. The best clue is to place the emphasis upon direct first-hand experiences growing out of the problems of the students, rather than upon the transmission of racial experience through organized subject matter. This sends us on to our third generalization.

C. *The most significant type of learning in a democratic society is characterized by reflective thinking, rather than by mechanical habit formation.* The perpetuation and refinement of democracy depends to a large extent upon whether or not citizens can be taught to have faith in the method of intelligence as a method of solving problems and to use it consistently in daily living. This is unquestionably an ideal deeply rooted in our heritage. If it should be established by scientific research that it is not possible to educate the masses to carry out this ideal, democracy will be replaced by some totalitarian form of government in which decisions will be made by a small group of leaders, scrupulous or unscrupulous, depending upon the group that seizes the power.

¹³ *Learning and Instruction*, Forty-Ninth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Pt. I, p. 39. Copyright, 1950, by The University of Chicago Press, Chicago.

Does psychological research tend to support the ideal? What is the evidence that the reflective process can be developed in all or nearly all people?

All psychological systems give a prominent place to learning that is characterized by what has been called creative or reflective thinking, the method of intelligence, or the scientific method, broadly conceived. The terminology differs in the various theories of learning, but the basic characteristics turn out to be quite similar.

What is meant by reflective thinking? Dewey, many years ago, made an analysis derived from his conception of the method of scientific inquiry that has become standard. His classic summary of the "general features" of a reflective experience follows:

They are (1) perplexity, confusion, doubt, due to the fact that one is implicated in an incomplete situation whose full character is not yet determined; (2) a conjectural anticipation—a let alone interpretation of the given elements, attributing to them a tendency to effect certain consequences; (3) a careful survey (examination, inspection, exploration, analysis) of all attainable considerations which will define and clarify the problem at hand; (4) a consequent elaboration of the tentative hypothesis to make it more precise and more consistent, because squaring with a wider range of facts; (5) taking one stand upon the projected hypothesis as a plan of action which is applied to the existing state of affairs: doing something overtly to bring about the anticipated result, thereby testing the hypothesis. It is the extent and accuracy of steps three and four which mark off a distinctive reflective experience from one on the trial and error plane. They make thinking itself into an experience.¹⁴

Reflective thinking, then, begins with a "forked road" situation. The individual is confronted with the necessity for acting, without being able, to move toward the goal—which may be finding his way out of a practical difficulty—the car stalls, the road is blocked, the tomato vines are beginning to wilt; or the forked-road situation may involve an intellectual understanding— "Why does water vapor form

¹⁴ John Dewey, *Democracy and Education*, p. 176. Copyright, 1916, by The Macmillan Company, New York. For similar analyses see: Robert L. Thorndike, "How Children Learn the Principles and Techniques of Problem-Solving," Chapter VIII in *Learning and Instruction*, *op. cit.*; and Lawrence Cole and William F. Bruce, *Educational Psychology*, New York, The World Book Company, 1950, Chapter XIV.

on the inside of the windowpanes?" "How does television work?" "What are the Communists going to try next?" In either case the essence is, as Dewey states, a "perplexity, confusion, or doubt" which has to be cleared before equilibrium can be restored. It is apparent that this type of situation is common in the lives of everyone—and the more complex the environment, the more problems are likely to arise.

What is to be done? At this point the central element in reflective thinking arises. Instead of responding blindly in trial and error fashion, there is suspension of judgment as to the appropriate outcome and the setting up of one or more hypotheses, in the language of the scientist, which are designed to direct further inquiry. In the less sophisticated language of the layman, we might think of this tentative solution as a "hunch" or even as a guess. It is well established that this step is common—perhaps universal—in human behavior, and possibly within limited ranges in the behavior of lower animals. "Why won't the car start?" "Perhaps the battery has 'run down.'" "Maybe it's due to moisture on the spark plugs." "The coil may be worn out." These are hunches which serve to direct further investigation.

Individuals vary greatly in their ability to formulate fruitful hypotheses. This variation may be due to a number of factors, among which are these:

Individual experience. Certainly hypotheses grow out of the previous experiences of the individual. "Old meanings are applied to the new situation." Hence the richness of one's experience with automobiles would have much to do with the fruitfulness of the hypotheses which were set up to explain the stubborn behavior of the car. The individual who doesn't know that the ignition system of an automobile has a coil which transforms the low voltage of a battery into a high potential capable of creating a spark would not be likely to utilize this hypothesis. This explains why children in school often fail to respond to the complex problems which the teacher "imposes" upon them. Through lack of maturity, and consequently of experience, they simply do not have the store of meanings necessary for formulating fruitful hypotheses.

General intelligence. The ability of the individual to deal effectively with a problematic situation requiring the setting up of hypotheses certainly is conditioned by what we might call effective intelligence—or the ability to see a wide variety of relationships. Individuals vary widely with respect to this ability, and failure to meet problem situations may be due to lack of native capacity as inferred from performance. It has been well established, however, that improvement can be made through the use of appropriate learning experiences.

The next step in the thinking process involves investigation, analysis, exploration, and interpretation in order to test the hypotheses. In simple practical problems this step may be carried out almost concurrently with the formulation of the hypotheses. "It's not likely to be the coil because the car is new." "The humidity has been very high, making condensation on the spark plugs likely." A quick check may reveal the accuracy of this hypothesis, and the problem is solved. In other cases the problem situation might be such as to require months and even years of patient investigation, as in the case of the making of the atom bomb. The essence of the step is that the hypothesis is regarded as tentative, incomplete, and unsatisfactory as a solution of the problem until data are discovered and applied which give it support. Because scientists have refused to accept even plausible hypotheses without painstaking research, they have been able to transform our technology. The same attitude and method applied to social, economic, and political problems would transform our culture.

The final steps in the Dewey analysis call for elaboration, modification, and refinement of the formulated hypotheses in the light of adequate data and action based upon the results.

The point of view expressed in the generalizations which we have been discussing is that utilizing reflective thinking in problem solving is inseparably connected with the perpetuation and refinement of our democracy. Does psychology hold promise that this type of learning is more than a philosophical ideal, that human beings can and do behave reflectively, and that the process can be taught?

The connectionistic theory of learning has tended to emphasize

mechanical modes of learning. The theory evolved from the experimental approach—and much of the experimentation involved cats in puzzle boxes, rats in mazes, and the like. This is not to claim that the Connectionists—or Functionalists—have no place for reflective thinking in their systems. On the contrary the process is recognized but is explained as “associative learning.” Hilgard, in summing up the viewpoint of current functionalism, makes this point clear:

While the associationist recognizes that meaningful material is more readily learned than nonsense material, degree of meaning is but one of the dimensions upon which material can be scaled. Hence he does not believe problem-solving or insight to require interpretations beyond ordinary associative learning. The organism uses what has been learned as appropriately as it can in a new situation. If the problem cannot be solved by analogy, the behavior has to be varied until the initial solution occurs. Insight is perhaps an extreme case of transfer of training.¹⁵

On the other hand, the Gestalt and other field theories of learning give a much larger place to thinking. Again quoting Hilgard:

The perceiving of relationships, awareness of the relationships between parts and wholes, of means to consequences, are emphasized by the Gestalt writers. Problems are to be solved sensibly, structurally, organically, rather than mechanically, stupidly, or by the running off of prior habits.¹⁶

Hilgard in an attempt to evolve an acceptable point of view toward learning recognizes the fact that human behavior cannot be fully explained by trial and error or other modes of response. He sets forth and supports by much experimental evidence the reality of a mode of behavior which he calls the “provisional try.” This term appears to mean the same thing as hypothesis, as used by Dewey, and other educators who have looked to the science field for appropriate terminology.¹⁷

The least we can say about our brief excursion into the nature of the thinking process and the viewpoints of the various schools of

¹⁵ Ernest R. Hilgard, *Theories of Learning*. New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1948, p. 171.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 205.

¹⁷ See *Ibid.*, pp. 335-339.

psychological thought is that while the process is not clearly understood, the *fact* of the existence of "careful, painstaking inquiry" is affirmed by abundant experimental data. This at least gives the educator a "green light" in organizing the life of the school in such a way as to facilitate reflective learning and to cultivate in students a genuine desire to apply intelligence to problems of living. By so doing, he is certainly furthering the democratic ideal of faith in intelligence. When the reflective problem-solving technique is extended to groups working together in the solving of common problems, we have an effective instrument for reconstructing and refining our democratic way of life.

D. When problems are of common concern, group thinking is the most effective approach to learning. While it is true that reflective behavior is a process of interaction between an *individual* and his environment, when that environment is made up of individuals seeking a similar goal, it is proper to think of *group* problem solving. This important aspect of modern education will be discussed fully in a later chapter. It should be pointed out here that modern psychology has given much emphasis to group dynamics. Thorndike presents a number of findings that summarize the present status which he refers to as "social problem-solving." These are his generalizations:

1. The group typically brings a broader background of experience to a problem situation than does an individual.
2. As a reflection of 1, the group is likely to produce more and varied suggestions for dealing with the problem than will arise from a single individual.
3. The diversity of viewpoints is *likely* to be more representative of the larger population from which they are drawn than is the viewpoint of a single individual.
4. As diversity of background and interest within the group becomes greater, it becomes increasingly difficult to reach a real agreement among the members of the group as to the definition of the problem, and the values to be served. Reconciliation of conflicting goals becomes a real problem.
5. Just as a group is likely to produce a greater range of suggestions, so also a group is likely to be more productive in criticisms of proposals and bases for rejecting them.

6. Interstimulation is a distinctive feature of group effort. The suggestion by X, which is criticized by Y, serves as the stimulus to Z for a new and quite different suggestion.
7. Interpersonal dynamics becomes a significant element. The assertive, the dogmatic, and the persuasive individual each plays a distinctive role.
8. With increasing size and diversity of group membership, unity and integration of effort are often difficult to achieve. Group members may show a tendency to "ride off in all directions."¹⁸

Group thinking is a process highly prized in our democratic society, for only through the use of this process can democratic institutions, programs, and policies be evaluated effectively and constructive changes proposed. Consequently it becomes one of the foundation stones of the methodology of the high school.

E. Skills, appreciations, and understandings are most effectively developed as a unified whole rather than each in isolation from the others. This generalization represents a clear break with Connectionist school of thought and with traditional classroom practices. Specific teaching techniques for the various types of subject matter have been highly developed. A considerable amount of the time given over to the professional education of the teacher is devoted to the mastery of these techniques. Drill lessons, appreciation lessons, and thinking lessons are still thought of as separate and distinct entities. As was pointed out earlier, these practices have their roots in the S-R bond theory of learning.

The trend in psychological thinking is toward a unitary concept of learning. To the Gestalt or Organismic school must go the credit for this development. This group has insisted that the "whole is greater than the sum of its parts," that "parts derive their properties

¹⁸ Robert L. Thorndike, *Learning and Instruction*, op. cit., p. 209. See also William Clark Trow, Alvin E. Zander, William C. Morse, and David Jenkins, "Psychology of Group Behavior: The Class as a Group," in *Educational Psychology for Teachers*. Studies in Education, National Society of College Teachers of Education Ann Arbor, University of Michigan, 1950, pp. 322-331; Kenneth D. Benne and Bozidar Muntyan, *Human Relations in Curriculum Change*. Circular Series A, No. 51, Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program Bulletin No. 7, Springfield, Illinois, State Department of Public Instruction, 1950. (Now published by the Dryden Press.)

from the whole," that the learner responded to the total field rather than to separate isolated elements of the field.

The relationship between motor learning and thinking is stressed by Ragsdale as follows:

Some instructors have seized upon one phase of the process, as the kinesthetic or the affective, and have built a teaching "system" around it, but such a system is as one-sided as was the view of some psychologists who once stated that rats used only kinesthesia in learning mazes because blind, deaf, anosmic rats could learn mazes. We have muscles and use them in motor learning, we have kinesthetic sense organs, eyes, ears, and skin senses and use all of them; we have language and use it, we have thinking processes and use them. We collect data about action for all available sources and use them in learning motor skills as fully as our individual intelligence permits. Reflective thinking is the key to this as in all areas.¹⁹

Some writers have attempted to show that a distinctive and unique type of learning is involved in the learning of appreciations. Morrison builds a separate teaching type around the claim that the development of appreciations is different from the acquisition of skills, or training in reflective thinking. More recently Rugg has developed the thesis that the creative process as exemplified in the field of esthetics represents a sharp break with Dewey's analysis of the complete act of thought. He claims that the neglect of esthetics in the schools is due in part to Dewey's failure "to explore the psychology of 'feeling,' to 'discriminate it from emotion' and to show its relationship to 'intuitive flashes of insight.'" ²⁰ In order to make his case against Dewey, he reduces Dewey's concept of reflective thinking to the cold, analytical method of the scientist in the laboratory. Summing up a mass of "documentation," he states:

The profound difference between expressive abstraction and photographic likeness is precisely the difference between science and art; hence the failure of all thoroughly pragmatic and instrumental philosophies to

¹⁹ C. E. Ragsdale, "How Children Learn the Motor Types of Activities." Chapter III in *Learning and Instruction*, op. cit., p. 89.

²⁰ Harold Rugg, *Foundations for American Education*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, World Book Company, 1947, pp. 225-226. Copyright, 1947, by Harold Rugg.

understand esthetics. The latter always "see" scientifically and put down photographically. The contrast in purpose is clear: science documents . . . art expresses. The acme of scientific statement is the scale drawing; from the precise dimensions of the scale drawing the physical object can be, must be, exactly reproduced. Duplication, that is, standardization, is both the end and the technique of science. Verification is the chief criterion; no scientific discovery is actually acclaimed until it is verified by independent duplication—either of experiment or logic.

No esthetic object, on the contrary, *can* be duplicated. The artist as self is unique. His interests are unique, his purposes and his seeing are unique. Each of his products is unique.²¹

Even though we may grant the accuracy of Rugg's descriptions of science and art, of scientific method and the creative act, we must at the same time insist that the broad category of reflective thinking which Dewey wrote many volumes to explain is a far cry from the narrow interpretation of science presented by Rugg.

In describing the elements of the creative act, Rugg places much emphasis upon *form*. We can tell when an act is truly creative when we determine whether or not the principles of "organization," "economy or simplicity," and "functionality" ²² are fully met. The application of these principles to any act is, of course, an application of reflective thinking. It is difficult to see how the artist can proceed to create a work of art unless he consciously applies criteria of what constitutes good art.

If we approach learning then, from a unified view of differing learning products, our concept of methodology will undergo significant modification.

F. Transfer of training is most effective when the learning situation is so organized as to facilitate generalization and the recognition of relationships. For half a century a controversy has raged over the problem of whether learning one kind of material helped in learning another kind of material—or as Hilgard, who designates it as one of the six major problems in theories of learning puts it: "Does learning one thing help you to learn something else?" ²³

²¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 466-467.

²² *Ibid.*, pp. 457-462, *passim*.

²³ Ernest R. Hilgard, *Theories of Learning*, New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1948, p. 8.

In general the Connectionists are extremely skeptical of transfer. Thorndike conducted many experiments, one of the most significant of which dealt with the effect of instruction in each of the various school subjects upon the student's ability to reason. He found that the differences were so small as to be negligible. This study seemed to confirm his earlier studies and those of the Behaviorists which dealt mostly with animal learning experiments. His theory of transfer of identical elements implies that transfer takes place only when an element of one situation is present in another.

The Gestaltists hold to quite a different view. Their experiments, as it has been shown, have dealt with situations involving the use of insight into a field containing many potential relationships rather than with specific learning situations. Hilgard sums up the position thus:

The Gestalt concept most like that of transfer is transposition. A pattern of dynamic relationships discovered or understood in one situation may be applicable to another. . . . There is something in common between the earlier learning and the situation in which transfer is found, but what exists in common is not identical piecemeal elements, but common patterns, configurations, or relationships. One of the advantages of learning by understanding rather than by rote process is that understanding is transposable to wider ranges of situations, and less often leads to erroneous applications of old learning.²⁴

The emphasis of the Experimentalists, following the lead of Dewey, has always been placed upon the creative aspects of learning. Dewey's much-quoted definition of education as the reconstruction of experience implies that as concepts are enriched by new experiences they gain in applicability to situations of greater and greater complexity. The concept is the basis for the formulation of the hypothesis. This is just another way of saying that transfer of training takes place when the learner applies old meanings (concepts) to new situations. Every case of genuine reflective thinking is, therefore, a case of transfer of training.

G. The development and modification of attitudes is a problem of learning which has great significance for the future of our demo-

²⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 205.

cratic society. Reduced to its simplest terms an attitude is a tendency or predisposition to respond in a certain manner to a given set of stimulating conditions.

In more technical terms it may be regarded as a "mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related."²⁵

Individuals acquire attitudes in many ways. Many of the attitudes which an individual holds are simply a set of beliefs which he has taken over ready-made from some other person or group. Young children often accept uncritically the attitudes of parents. One may accept the point of view of another concerning the Republican party without ever having examined it. The same may be true concerning religious beliefs, prejudices concerning race, or problems of morality. Attitudes may also arise from some very vivid experience which is then generalized into a disposition or set. For example, a person may have had an unpleasant experience with a dog, and comes to dislike or even hate *all* dogs. Probably the most common origin of attitudes is the gradual integration of a number of similar experiences, in the same manner as one builds a concept of roundness by seeing a number of objects each of which has the property of being round. Certainly that is the way the school seeks to develop "right" attitudes.

The process of attitude development is of course important in all cultures. The totalitarian states permit no choice to the individual in the attitudes which he holds toward the ruler, or the state. Thus the method of intelligence or reflective thinking which has been stressed in this, and the preceding chapter, has no chance to operate.

In our society the case is quite different. Democracy places a heavy responsibility upon the individual to "make up his own mind" on what he believes. And because he is free to do so he is bombarded on all sides by propaganda designed to influence him.²⁶ It

²⁵ Quoted from Gordon Allport by Dale Harris in *Learning and Instruction. Op. cit.*, p. 130.

²⁶ For an excellent discussion of propaganda, its devices and ways of dealing with it, see J. Minor Gwynn, *Curriculum Principles and Social Trends*. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1950, pp. 615-661.



Fig. 1. A Group of Ninth-Grade Students of the Samuel Gompers Junior High School at Work on the Unit: "Putting UN and UNESCO Aims and Ideals to Work in Daily Living." (See Chapter XIII, pp. 395-411.) *Courtesy Samuel Gompers Junior High School, Los Angeles, California.*



Fig. 2. Students of the Seventh-Grade, Pocomoke School, Worcester County, Maryland, Fishing from Dock, at a "Shore Picnic" Planned in Connection with a Unit on "Leisure Time." *Courtesy Worcester County, Maryland, Schools.*

reaches into every aspect of living and utilizes very subtle techniques which are not easily detected.

The development and modification of attitudes, then, is one of the major problems in learning, and unfortunately a good deal of research needs to be done before the effectiveness of different procedures is known.²⁷ We do know, however, that attitudes can be changed but that the process is a slow one. We know also that the climate in which learning takes place has a great deal to do with the effectiveness of the instruction.²⁸

In terms of the democratic ideal of faith in intelligence, it is highly desirable to develop teaching and learning procedures that utilize reflective thinking in changing attitudes, rather than to resort to the tactics of the propagandists. Democracy and indoctrination are antithetical. The freedom of the learner to develop his own attitudes and to weave them into a consistent pattern of living must not be violated. The school must, however, help him to develop techniques for evaluating data, and for using reflective thinking. It must also resist the many pressure groups which are anxious to utilize the school to inculcate their cherished beliefs. The school must recognize that it has a special responsibility in this respect because its students, in a real sense, constitute a "captive audience."

SUMMARY

- A. The task of the educator is to utilize the most effective principles of learning for promoting democratic values.
- B. In general, the organismic, or field theories of learning, seem most congenial to the purposes of the democratic school.
- C. It is possible to develop generalizations concerning learning for the guidance of the teacher in the classroom. The following are important ones:
 1. Learning is an active process which involves the dynamic interaction of the learner and his environment.

²⁷ See *Learning and Instruction*, *op. cit.*, pp. 148-155; Eugene and Ruth E. Hartley, *Fundamentals of Social Psychology*, New York, Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1952. Chapters XX-XXII.

²⁸ For suggestions on the measurement of attitudes, see Cole and Bruce, *op. cit.*, pp. 668-671.

2. Learning is most effective when the learner is motivated by goals which are intrinsic to the activity.
3. The most significant type of learning in a democratic society is characterized by reflective thinking, rather than by mechanical habit formation.
4. When problems are of common concern, group thinking is the most effective approach to learning.
5. Skills, appreciations, and understandings are most effectively developed as a unified whole rather than each in isolation from the others.
6. Transfer of training is most effective when the learning situation is so organized as to facilitate generalization and the recognition of relationships.
7. The development and modification of attitudes is a problem of learning which has great significance in our democratic society.

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CHAPTER IV

UNDERSTANDING THE ADOLESCENT

Preceding chapters have stressed the point that the curriculum should be based upon the needs, problems, and interests of youth growing up in a democratic culture. The ideals of the culture were proposed as goals for the educative process, and some basic generalizations about learning were related to these goals. •

In this chapter a closer look is taken at the adolescent learner with a view of providing a general understanding of his nature, life's needs, problems, interests, and general development.

ADOLESCENCE AND THE HIGH-SCHOOL PERIOD

The high-school period (grades seven to twelve) corresponds roughly to the period of adolescence, which has been defined as "a development period which extends from the end of childhood to the beginning of adulthood." This definition does not help much, for it is far from clear when childhood ends and adulthood begins. Growth is more or less a continuous process and, hence, any one stage defies accurate definition. We do know, however, that childhood is a period of almost complete dependency, while adulthood implies a large measure of social and economic independence. The nature of adolescence is not clearly defined because it is an "in-between period" which is characterized by continuous physical, social, intellectual, and emotional change. Roughly, we may say that it is the period beginning at about age twelve and extending to ages nineteen or twenty, but here again it is necessary to be ex-

tremely cautious because chronological age is not a very reliable index of development toward maturity. Contrary to much that has been written on the subject, physical changes are not abrupt but rather are gradual and continuous. There are also extreme variations among individuals even from the physical standpoint. Variations in intellectual, social, and emotional behavior are equally great. There are, however, certain characteristics of individuals during this middle, or transitional, period that are sufficiently common to justify a study of high-school youth. For our present purposes, it seems feasible to regard the term "early adolescence" as applicable to the lower grades of the six-year high school, and "late adolescence" to the upper grades and to the first two years of the college period. It must be pointed out, too, that trends in development toward adult status are applicable only in general, and that such trends are only suggestive as clues in understanding a particular individual or small group.

THE BASIS OF ADOLESCENT BEHAVIOR

Unfortunately a great many misconceptions have grown up concerning adolescence.¹ Many of them are deep-seated and continue to influence the attitude of the teacher toward the adolescent. The most generally held belief, which has been completely discredited, is that the behavior of the adolescent is the result of innate tendencies which cause him to "recapitulate" the experiences of the race. This doctrine was popularized by G. Stanley Hall.² It was held that little could be done about it. The adolescent simply went through the stages of development more or less automatically. Selfishness, greed, and possessiveness were explained in terms of the history of man and nations. The individual's behavior was regarded as the inevitable result of "the pent-up forces of the greed of thousands of years." Later on, generosity, altruism, and other desirable traits sprang up just as naturally because they are but later expressions of man's slow struggle toward civilization. The effect of this doctrine

¹ See Hedley S. Dimock, Hugh S. Hartshorne, and Harold E. Haydon, *Rediscovering the Adolescent*. New York, Association Press, 1937, pp. 254-255.

² See G. Stanley Hall, *Adolescence*. New York, D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1905, Vols. I II

was, of course, to encourage a *laissez faire* attitude toward the development of the adolescent. Rousseau's conception of the inherent goodness of human nature fitted neatly into this theory. Since human nature was regarded as good, it was only necessary to keep the child from the contaminating influence of a depraved society and let his impulses develop. This doctrine, needless to say, influenced the early "child-centered" school profoundly.

Another misconception for which Hall and his followers were largely responsible was that adolescence represented a saltatory change which transformed the child almost overnight into a different kind of being.

"Adolescence is a new birth, for the higher and more completely human traits are now born. The qualities of the body and soul that now emerge are far newer. The child comes from and looks back to a remoter past; the adolescent is neo-atavistic, and in him the later acquisitions of the race slowly become prepotent. Development is less gradual and more saltatory, suggestive of some ancient period of storm and stress when old moorings were broken and a higher level attained."³

The fact that noticeable physical changes take place at puberty lends color to this theory. However, even these changes have been shown to be gradual and represent only external indications of change. Another aspect of this misconception is the belief that during adolescence powers of reasoning and judgment spring into being. The moral sense is also supposed to flower with the result that the adolescent suddenly develops deep religious concerns.

This misconception is partly responsible for the fact that the junior high school was set up as a more or less separate institution. The adolescent, now being a new person, required a new type of institution. The marked shift in curriculum and method at the junior high-school level is directly related to this theory. It has been asserted that the elementary school should center upon the inculcation of fixed habits and skills, while the high school should develop reflective thinking. A great deal of harm has been done to students because of this practice for which there is no foundation in fact.

³ *Ibid.*, Vol. I, xiii.

We are now reasonably certain that no new traits develop during the period of adolescence. Many of the differences which we observe in adolescent behavior can be traced to the environment in which youth grows up.⁴ Even the development of interest in the opposite sex is a gradual one and represents only a shift from the period of childhood when affection is largely centered in the immediate family.

THE ADOLESCENT IN A CONFUSED CULTURE

Adolescence is truly an "in-between" stage of development. The adolescent is struggling to grow up, to be recognized as a distinctive personality, to become socially and economically independent, to establish a home. Yet many forces in the culture prevent him from growing up. In normal times, even the older adolescent finds it difficult, if not impossible, to find steady employment. The rise of technology and the system of private enterprise have both operated to keep him in the dependent role.⁵ Participation in socially significant activities is a crying need, but he is denied the opportunity by a culture that seems to have no use for his services. Parents, too, have misunderstood him. If he acts "grown up," he is reminded that he is still a child. If he acts like a child, he is reminded that he is now "grown up." This frequently accounts for his ambivalence which sometimes causes parents a great deal of worry, little realizing that they are partly responsible for these apparent inconsistencies in behavior.

Then, too, the confusions in our culture make the development of maturity of behavior difficult. On every hand youth is confronted with conflicting values. He sees a society that has tended to reject fixed moral standards, but has developed few new ones to replace

⁴ This position is supported by Margaret Mead and many psychologists. For example, see Margaret Mead, *Coming of Age in Samoa*. New York, William Morrow and Co., 1928; Eugene L. and Ruth E. Hartley, *Fundamentals of Social Psychology*. New York, Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1952, Chapter VIII.

⁵ The American Youth Commission has studied this problem thoroughly. Its reports present illuminating data concerning the plight of youth in an industrial society. See Howard Bell, *Youth Tell Their Story*, 1938, and Homer Rainey, et al., *How Fare American Youth?* 1937, Washington, American Council on Education. World War II brought about a temporary change in the situation, but from a long range point of view the generalizations presented by the Commission are still valid.

them. He is led to think of America as a land of plenty, yet on all sides is confronted with abject poverty. He sees ideas of cooperation and group participation in operation in some areas, but at the same time he is aware of the potency of the competitive system. He is told that the method of intelligence is essentially the method of democracy, but he sees momentous decisions being made by caprice, selfishness, or by a resort to outworn traditional values or violence. He is told that he should be tolerant, that he should have respect for others, yet he is confronted by the most flagrant violations of human personality in the treatment of races and minority groups. He learns in school the responsibilities and obligations of citizenship, yet senses the apathy of the citizen in participating in political life even to the extent of going to the polls to vote. The world conflict between the nations of the "free" world and those representing a totalitarian ideology has brought conflicts and uncertainties. He wants to become economically independent, but the civil and military defense of the nation also claims his allegiance. Perhaps these commonplace illustrations of conflict and confusion in the culture are evidences of the growing pains of democracy, but they are inevitably reflected in youth and are responsible to a large extent for his behavior.

We should, of course, not take a defeatist attitude toward these problems. The school must help the adolescent to weave some sort of unity and consistency into his life. Democracy may not survive if youth is not prepared to meet its perplexing problems. Perhaps the confusions in the culture may serve as starting points for developing deeper insights.

THE ADOLESCENT-NEEDS CONCEPT

As a reaction against the adult-centered curriculum, a number of proposals to base the curriculum upon adolescent needs have been made in recent years. The proponents of this plan hold that what is wrong with secondary education is that the curriculum has been dominated by the demands of the adult world. The remedy is to be found in a reversal of the whole procedure of curriculum making. The adolescent must be studied, his needs determined, and a cur-

riculum designed to meet his needs must be provided. Like many other terms in educational literature, the needs concept is a vague one. It is used by people in many different ways. Often in the course of a discussion, it is used by the same writer in different ways. This results in confusion. Many of the arguments for and against basing a curriculum on adolescent needs are mere verbal differences that arise because the participants have differing conceptions of the meaning of "meeting the needs of students." At the risk of adding further to the confusion an attempt will now be made to discuss and perhaps reconcile the differing conceptions, and to explore the possibilities of utilizing the needs approach in curriculum development.

Conflicting Concepts of Needs. Perhaps the most common interpretation of needs is that they are drives, tensions, biological urges in the individual that determine action. Some of the tensions or urges are vague and poorly defined by the individual, others are clear-cut and definite, dominated by a goal or purpose. The need for food is an example of a basic elemental need. A dominating purpose to become a lawyer is a more complex and comprehensive need, but both are characterized by a biological tension or urge. Between the indefinite restlessness that may characterize at first the need for food, and the organized feeling of need to become a lawyer, is a complete range of drives that often are spoken of as problems, interests, whims, wishes, desires, longings, or purposes. Perhaps the term, *psychobiological*⁶ need, best characterizes this concept of needs. Obviously they are of an infinite number and are peculiar to each individual, shifting continuously as the individual develops. The so-called child-centered schools lean heavily upon this interpretation.

In contrast to this psychobiological concept, many people speak of the needs of the adolescent in terms of his deficiencies or "lacks" as seen by adults. Adolescence is, as has been pointed out, an "in-between" period. Growing up simply means moving from the im-

⁶ See Donald C. Doane, *The Needs of Youth*. Teachers College, Columbia University, Contribution to Education, No. 848, p. 4. Copyright, 1942, by Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

mature world of the child to the mature world of the adult. What sort of an adult should the adolescent become? The answer is to be found in the adult's conception of what he believes a desirable adult world to be. It may be one dominated by the academic tradition, in which case the adult will claim that Johnny needs to know Shakespeare, to be familiar with classical music, or to be able to read Plato in the original. Or if the adult happens to be primarily interested in refining the concept of democratic living, then he will proclaim that Johnny needs to be tolerant, to be socially sensitive, to use the method of intelligence, and to learn how to cooperate for common ends. If the adult is primarily concerned with the practical world, he will insist that Johnny needs to learn a trade, to be able to repair a short circuit in the lighting system of the home, or to select becoming clothes. Needs of this sort are called *predicated needs* by Doane. For our present purpose we may think of this concept of needs as embracing the *requirements, demands, or standards of society*. Thought of in terms of the adolescent, they are translated into "lacks" or "shortcomings" that ought to be eliminated if the adolescent is to become the sort of adult that is held to be desirable. Needs, defined in his manner, obviously have no *necessary* connection with what is *felt* by the adolescent at any given time. Needs of this sort are discovered by an analysis of society, not by an analysis of adolescent behavior. This interpretation is congenial to the social-functions procedure in curriculum reorganization.

It is easy to see that these two concepts of needs conflict insofar as the high school curriculum is concerned. If we accept the second interpretation, we study the social order to determine its ideals, values, shortcomings, and the like. We then utilize our knowledge of the adolescent to motivate him to learn the sort of behavior that is revealed as necessary in the kind of world in which he is growing up, or the kind of world he wants to build. Obviously, when we are arguing about needs, we had better be fairly certain of whether we are using the term to refer to biological tensions or to social demands or requirements.

But the resolution of the difficulty is not a simple matter of

accepting one or the other as the basis of curriculum reorganization. Acceptance of the first leads to all the abuses and excesses of the child-centered curriculum. To accept the second opens the door to the inclusion of all sorts of traditional materials that in the past have kept the secondary school from becoming a vital and significant institution.

What is the way out of the dilemma? One way, as we have seen, is to accept *both* interpretations and introduce courses to implement each of them. Thus, we might have courses in ancient history, pre-flight aeronautics, electrical repairing, and problems of democracy to meet social demands or requirements; and courses in personal regimen, psychology, or sex education to meet the psychobiological needs. It is obvious that such a program presents an impossible dualism that effectively prevents unification in the school.

Reconciling the Conflict. The Commission on the Secondary School Curriculum⁷ has proposed a solution of the problem by a redefinition of the meaning of needs, and the development of a program of curriculum reorganization based upon the new concept. Since this plan is the result of an extensive study over a period of several years, it will be presented in some detail.

Needs are held to be personal-social in character. A need always has two inseparable and interrelated aspects. The first aspect is a biological or somatic tension. It refers to some want or desire that

⁷ This study began in 1932 under the auspices of the Progressive Education Association. It carried on its work through a commission under the direction of V. T. Thayer. The Commission worked through two interrelated activities, a study of adolescents, and a study of the curriculum by educators, psychologists, and subject-matter specialists. The studies of the Commission have been published in a series of volumes. Those pertaining to the curriculum, published by the D Appleton-Century Company, Inc., are as follows: Lawrence Conrad (for the Creative Writing Committee), *Teaching Creative Writing* (1937). Committee on the Function of Science in General Education, *Science in General Education* (1938). Committee on the Function of Art in General Education, *The Visual Arts in General Education* (1940). Committee on the Function of English in General Education, *Language in General Education* (1940). Committee on the Function of Mathematics in General Education, *Mathematics in General Education* (1940). Committee on the Function of Social Science in General Education, *Social Science in General Education* (1940). Elbert Lenrow (for the Committee on the Teaching of English in General Education), *Prose Fiction in General Education* (1940).

the individual seeks to satisfy, some problem that he wants to solve, some interest that he wants to develop or maintain. But this is only half of the story. Needs do not exist "under the skin of the individual" in isolation from the physical and social environment. They are in continuous interaction with it. Therefore they cannot be adequately described or defined without taking into account the environmental (social) aspect.

To speak of a need without including both its *personal and social* aspects is to leave out an indispensable element. Merely to say that Johnny wants something or that teacher A believes John needs a particular piece of knowledge, is to leave out the element of interaction between the two necessary components.

Now when the term *need* is used in this manner, it is evident that in any need as it exists at any given moment the two aspects will be present in varying degrees. Indeed, the emphasis shifts back and forth from one aspect to the other. Some needs, such as the "need for self-assurance," are more personal in character, whereas others such as the "need to participate with others in social-civic life" show more obviously their involvement in the social scene. But in the case of both of these illustrations, the two aspects are present. Self-assurance cannot be attained except with reference to situations involving the environment, particularly other persons, if it were possible for a person to exist in a vacuum, the problem of self-assurance would never exist for him, on the other hand there would be no participation in social life except because of the needs of individuals. In the first illustration the teacher may be chiefly concerned with establishing fruitful relationships between the individual and environment and directing the "need for self-assurance" into socially desirable channels. In the second illustration, the teacher may be primarily concerned with discovering the personal, individual tensions which calls for participation with others and with ways of directing it profitably.⁸

⁸ Committee on the Function of Science in General Education, *op. cit.*, p. 26. Copyright, 1938, by D. Appleton-Century Co. The above interpretation of "social" seems to be slightly at variance with the interpretation of the Commission as stated in *Reorganizing Secondary Education*. In that volume "needs as lacks" seem to be identified as the social aspect. A "lack" is defined as the difference "between the personality of the adolescent as it is found and the kind of personality that the school would have him develop." (p. 35) As used in the above context, the social aspects of a need simply refers to the surrounding culture which presses in upon the adolescent, its stresses and strains as they affect him, the demands of the environment. The general statement of position is similar in both volumes. *Science in General Education* is used as the basis of the interpretation because (1) the treatment is simpler, and (2)

If we accept this interpretation of needs, then a study of the *adolescent in his environment*⁹ will reveal not only his wishes, desires, immediate problems, interests, but also the demands, standards, and requirements of the culture that affect him. Out of such a study would arise the identification of basic personal-social needs of the adolescent.

Classifying the Needs of Adolescents. The Commission found it helpful to think of the needs of adolescents in terms of their involvement in four basic interrelated aspects of living. It makes no claim of finality for this classification. Other groups, approaching the same problem, would probably utilize different categories. However, after experimentation with several types of organization, the Commission decided that the aspects-of-living concept best expressed the "idea of personal-social relationships, and continuous interaction between the individual and the environment." The first category, *Personal Living* concerns the development of the individual as a *person*. As he grows in interaction with the environment, the adolescent is held to have the following needs: (1) for personal health, (2) for self-assurance, (3) for a satisfying world picture and a workable philosophy of life, (4) for a range of personal interests, and for esthetic satisfactions. The second category, *Immediate Personal-Social Relationships*, includes the adolescent's relationships with persons and groups in his immediate environment, his parents, schoolmates, friends, and brothers and sisters. These relationships, at a time when he is gradually emancipating himself from home and family ties, take on peculiar significance, for they require significant adjustments. The Commission enumerates two

it was published before *Reorganizing Secondary Education* and was utilized by the schools of the Eight-Year Study as a basis for curriculum planning, the results of which are used in this volume as illustrations of the proposed technique

⁹ The position of the Commission in defining needs so as to include both aspects has been criticized by Doane, *op. cit.*, p. 48. He claims that it is not possible to interpret all needs as involving both the psychobiological and the predicted (social demands) aspect. He accuses the Commission of incorrectly assuming the biological nature of many of the needs which it sets forth. He sees a danger in this procedure in that by further rationalization "virtually any item of subject matter could be presented as a self-motivating basis for curriculum construction."

basic needs in this area: (1) the need for increasingly mature relationships in home and family life, and (2) the need for successful and increasingly mature relationships with agemates of both sexes. The third category, *Social-Civic Relationships*, is really an extension of the second one, and includes the adolescent's relationships with wider social groups such as school clubs, the church, the local community, and government. Obviously, this area involves more generalization and conceptualization than the former and the adolescent's relationships involve him in such intricate problems as housing, recreation, crime, government, and the like. His needs in this area are two: (1) the need for responsible participation in socially significant activities, and (2) the need for social recognition. The fourth category is *Economic Relationships*. This category is well described by the needs that are listed. They are: (1) the need for emotional assurance of progress toward adult status, (2) the need for guidance in choosing an occupation and for vocational preparation, (3) the need for wise selection and use of goods and services, and (4) the need for effective action in solving basic economic problems.¹⁰

The Science Committee states that this list of needs is suggestive only and is not to be accepted as fixed and final. Obviously each need listed could be broken down into scores of more specific ones or they could be combined into two or three needs basic to all living.¹¹ Undoubtedly they would need further analysis in terms of

¹⁰ The reader who wishes to make a detailed study of the concept should read carefully the various publications of the Commission. For example, *Social Science in General Education* utilizes the identical categories for the purpose of determining the contributions of social science as general education, and in *Reorganizing Secondary Education*, the Commission treats in great detail the characteristics of the adolescent in these four aspects of living. For the more technical psychological aspects, the reader will do well to examine: Caroline Zachry and Margaret Lighty, *Emotion and Conduct in Adolescence*. New York, D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1940, and Peter Blos, *The Adolescent Personality*, New York, D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1940.

¹¹ While this formulation was being developed, the Commission on Human Relations of the Progressive Education Ass'n was studying the problems of "human needs" from a slightly different angle. See Walter C. Langer, *Psychology and Human Living*. New York, D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1943. He reports sixteen basic human needs in three categories: Physical, Social, and Egotistic.

the peculiar conditions existing in a particular school that sought to utilize the needs concept in curriculum reorganization. The character of the analysis is to be determined, in any case, by the uses to which the results are to be put. The Science Committee found the above analysis fairly satisfactory for its purpose—the determination of the place of science in the general education of the adolescent.

The work of this commission has been influential in curriculum-development programs. The four aspects of living have been used not only for the classification of needs, but also for classifying problem areas in general education.

We now turn to an examination of other analyses of adolescent needs, some of them at variance with the interpretation of the commission.

Doane's Study of Needs. This study¹² was of the inventory type. It is described in some detail since its methods differ somewhat from those of other studies. First, a survey of the literature pertaining to adolescent needs was made by the author. A need, in the sense the author uses the term, refers to "a state of tension requiring relief." It includes "any status which the individual will seek to change—any tension he will seek to relieve." From this explanation it follows that a need is "any disturbance which arises from a state of affairs either within his own body or in the environment in which he lives and which impels him to do something to make it more to his liking."¹³ Upon the basis of his definition and the survey of the literature, he concludes that there are fifteen major areas in which needs and problems arise. They are as follows: (1) Vocational Choice and Placement, (2) Philosophy of Life; Mental Hygiene, (3) Getting Along with People, (4) Morals, (5) Plans for Marriage and Family, (6) Leisure Time and Recreation, (7) Finances, (8) Relationships with the Opposite Sex, (9) Health, (10) Sex and Reproduction, (11) Religion, (12) Relationships with Family, (13) Social Competence, (14) Conventional Subject-Mat-

¹² Donald C. Doane, *The Needs of Youth*. Teachers College, Columbia University, Contribution to Education, No. 848. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942.

¹³ *Ibid.*, pp. 43-44.

ter Areas, (15) Other Areas of Interest. Wishing to avoid asking the student directly what his needs were, the author used the device of describing twenty "courses" which included all of the needs which seemed pertinent. The student was asked to check the five courses which he would most want to take in one year, and the five courses he would least want to take. In order to illustrate what is meant by a "course," the following description of course No. 1 is quoted from the inventory.

Deciding what kind of work you want to do when you finish school. Finding out what kind of work you are best fitted for. Learning how to prepare yourself for the kind of work you intend to do. Finding out what it is like.

How to find a job. How to apply for a job. Why some people get jobs and others do not. Keeping a job. Training for a job that you are interested in which will fit you for immediate employment upon finishing school—with an employment service which can give you reasonable assurance of obtaining such a job. Finding out what different kinds of work you like, what the chances are in them; what the pay is apt to be, etc.¹⁴

To make certain that the needs of the students were revealed, they were also asked to check a large number of topics which presumably would fall under the various courses proposed.

More than two thousand usable replies were received from high-school students in several geographical localities. The following are some of the most important conclusions that were reached: (1) The area of greatest concern to the total group was vocational choice and placement; (2) help in the development of social abilities, relationships with the opposite sex, health problems, philosophy of life, problems of finance, learning to play an instrument, reading for enjoyment, and science topics (boys) all received high rankings; (3) religion, current problems, government and history, learning a foreign language and problems involving moral standards received relatively low rankings. The study is significant as an illustration of a procedure for studying adolescents. It does not throw much light upon the wider problems of guidance and curriculum

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 129

making because it excluded from consideration needs that are not immediately felt by the student.

Commission on Human Relations Study. Through case studies, interviews, and controlled observations and responses of youth to suggested problems, the Commission on Human Relations of the Progressive Education Association ¹⁵ formulated the following list:

TYPICAL POINTS OF FOCUS OR CONCERNS OF ADOLESCENTS

- A. Establishing Personal Relationships
 - 1. With Own Sex
 - 2. With Other Sex
 - 3. Concerns about Fundamental or Superficial Mores
 - 4. Yearning for Understanding Friendships
 - 5. Confusions Arising from Different Standards in Society
 - 6. Interference of Process of Weaning from Family in Establishing New Personal Relationships
 - 7. Concern Over Change of Self in Different Personal Situations
 - 8. Problems in Achieving Successful Marriage
- B. Establishing Independence
 - 1. Father or Mother Domination—"Authority"
 - 2. Desire to Work
 - 3. Compulsory Work to Support Others
 - 4. Desire to Leave Home
 - 5. Emotional Break with Dependence on Family
 - 6. Acceptance on Adult Level
 - 7. Freedom of Choice in Vital Decisions
 - 8. Setting Up Beliefs about "Creed" as Authority
 - 9. Establishing Allegiance as Part of Independence
- C. Understanding Human Behavior
 - 1. Concern Over Ways People Dominate and Hurt Each Other
 - 2. Concern Over Frailties of Justice—Miscarriages—Bias
 - 3. Man's Inhumanity to Man
 - 4. General Discord Between People
- D. Establishing Self in Society
 - 1. Desire for Acceptance as Socially and Morally Responsible Person
 - 2. Desire for Acceptance of Opinions as Important by Adults and Others

¹⁵ Reported in H. H. Giles, S. P. McCutchen, and A. N. Zeichl. *Exploring the Curriculum*. Copyright, 1942, by Harper and Brothers, New York By permission of the American Education Fellowship.

3. **Desire to Feel Important to Society or Group**
4. **Readiness for Assumption of Job with No Opportunity**
5. **Readiness for Assumption of Home and Family Responsibilities**
6. **Concern Over Acceptance of Family Status by Social Group**
7. **Desire to Excel in Some Skill**
8. **Concern Over Status of Race or Minority Group**
9. **Efforts to Resolve Conflicts Arising from Differences in Mores in Groups within Society**
10. **Education**
- E. **Normality**
 1. **Physical Growth**
 2. **Mental Ability**
 3. **Emotions**
- F. **Understanding the Universe**
 1. **Sensitivity to beauty**
 2. **Concern over "Authorities" outside of Experience**
 3. **Urge to Create as Effort to Comprehend and Express**
 4. **Effort to Establish Security in World and Universe Not Understood**
 5. **Effort to Establish Philosophy of Life**¹⁶

This formulation undoubtedly reflects more the "immediate and felt" aspect of needs, and less the socio-economic aspect. In light of the data utilized to determine the "concerns," this is expected.

Educational Policies Commission Imperative Needs of Youth. In quite a different key is the statement of the Educational Policies Commission, entitled the *Imperative Needs of Youth*.¹⁷

1. All youth need to develop salable skills and those understandings and attitudes that make the worker an intelligent and productive participant in economic life. To this end, most youth need supervised work experience as well as education in the skills and knowledge of their occupations.
2. All youth need to develop and maintain good health and physical fitness.
3. All youth need to understand the rights and duties of the citizen of a democratic society, and to be diligent and competent in the per-

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 315-320, *passim*.

¹⁷ *Education for All American Youth: A Further Look*, Washington, Educational Policies Commission, 1952. This is a revision of the earlier *Education for All American Youth* published in 1944.

formance of their obligations as members of the community and citizens of the state and nation.

4. All youth need to understand the significance of the family for the individual and society and the conditions conducive to successful family life.
5. All youth need to know how to purchase and use goods and services intelligently, understanding both the values received by the consumer and the economic consequences of their acts.
6. All youth need to understand the methods of science, the influence of science on human life, and the main scientific facts concerning the nature of the world and of man.
7. All youth need opportunities to develop their capacities to appreciate beauty in literature, art, music, and nature.
8. All youth need to be able to use their leisure time well and to budget it wisely, balancing activities that yield satisfactions to the individual with those that are socially useful.
9. All youth need to develop respect for other persons, to grow in their insight into ethical values and principles, and to be able to live and work cooperatively with others.
10. All youth need to grow in their ability to think rationally, to express their thoughts clearly, and to read and listen with understanding.¹⁸

Obviously this formulation differs materially from the lists of needs presented thus far. It is undoubtedly influenced by the "social demands" rather than the "psychobiological" concept. Needs, as used here, simply refers to what the group that formulated the statement *thinks* that youth *ought* to want, and what therefore should be made the basis of the high-school curriculum.

THE DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS CONCEPT

The meaning of this term is explained by Havighurst¹⁹ who did much to popularize it. He had worked with the Commission on the Secondary-School Curriculum, to which earlier reference was made in this chapter, in formulating a workable concept of needs. The concept of developmental tasks later grew out of his recognition of

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 216.

¹⁹ Robert J. Havighurst. *Developmental Tasks and Education*. New York, Longmans, Green and Co., 1950, pp. 1-4. Copyright, 1950, by Robert J. Havighurst.

the fact that "he had seen so much misunderstanding result from the use of the equivocal term, 'needs.'" ²⁰

Havighurst's definition of the term is this:

The developmental task concept occupies the middle ground between the two opposed theories of education—the theory of freedom—that the child will develop best if left as free as possible, and the theory of restraint—that the child must learn to become a worthy responsible adult through restraints imposed by his society. A developmental task is midway between an individual need and a societal demand. It partakes of the nature of both. Accordingly, it is a useful concept for students who would relate human behavior to the problems of education—useful without, I hope, obscuring important issues in educational theory.²¹

The theory is essentially simple. Every child has imposed upon him at various stages of his development a series of tasks which he must learn to perform. The imposition is made by his own biological nature and the society of which he is a part. As he comes to define these tasks, either with or without help, they become the motive power of his behavior. In other words, they represent personal-social needs which must be met. Havighurst, drawing heavily from his fellow workers and previous studies, lists these developmental tasks for the "American middle class" adolescent:

1. *Accepting One's Physique and Accepting a Masculine or Feminine Role.*

Nature of the Task. The goal: to become proud, or at least tolerant of one's body; to accept a socially approved masculine or feminine role.

2. *[Establishing] New Relations With Age-Mates of Both Sexes*

Nature of the Task. The goal: to learn to look upon girls as women, and boys as men; to become an adult among adults; to learn to work with others for a common purpose, disregarding personal feelings, to learn to lead without dominating.

3. *[Establishing] Emotional Independence of Parents and Other Adults*

Nature of the Task. The goal: to become free from childish dependence

²⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 2.

²¹ *Ibid.*, p. 4. The reader, at this point, may wish to compare this statement with the statement of the Commission on Secondary-School Curriculum presented in this chapter, p. 94.

on parents; to develop affection for parents without dependence upon them, to develop respect for older adults without dependence upon them.

4. *Achieving Assurance of Economic Independence.*

Nature of the Task. The goal, to feel able to make a living, if necessary. This is primarily a task for boys, in our society, but it is of increasing importance to girls.

5. *Selecting and Preparing for an Occupation*

Nature of the Task. The goal: to choose an occupation for which one has the necessary ability, to prepare for this occupation.

6. *Developing Intellectual Skills and Concepts Necessary for Civic Competence.*

Nature of the Task. The goal, to develop concepts of law, government, economics, politics, geography, human nature, and social institutions which fit the modern world, to develop language skills and reasoning ability necessary for dealing effectively with the problems of modern democracy.

7. *Desiring and Achieving Socially Responsible Behavior*

Nature of the Task. The goal, to participate as a responsible adult in the life of the community, region or nation, to take account of the values of society in one's personal behavior.

8. *Preparing for Marriage and Family Life.*

Nature of the Task. The goal, to develop a positive attitude toward family life and having children, and (mainly for girls) to get the knowledge necessary for home management and child-rearing.

9. *Building Conscious Values in Harmony with an Adequate Scientific World-Picture.*

Nature of the Task. The goal, to form a set of values which are possible of realization, to develop a conscious purpose of realizing these values, to define man's place in the physical world and in relation to other human beings, to help one's world-picture and one's values in harmony with each other. Definition: a value is an object or state of affairs which is desired.²²

Still another statement of development tasks, similar to the Havighurst formulation, has been made by a committee of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.²³

²² *Ibid.*, pp. 30-56, *passim*

²³ *Fostering Mental Health in Our Schools* 1950 Year-Book, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development of the National Education Association, Washington. Copyright, 1950, by Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. The section referred to here was prepared by Caroline Tryon and Jesse W. Lienthal III, both of the University of Chicago.

Ten categories of behavior are set up and the development tasks of five stages of development are listed. Because this volume deals with the education of adolescents, only the last two stages, "Early Adolescence," and "Late Adolescence" are presented here.

I. Achieving an Appropriate Dependence-Independence Pattern
Early Adolescence

1. Establishing one's independence from adults in all areas of behavior

Late Adolescence

1. Establishing one's self as an independent individual in an adult manner

II. Achieving an Appropriate Giving-Receiving Pattern of Affection
Early Adolescence

1. Accepting one's self as a worthwhile person, really worthy of love

Late Adolescence

1. Building a strong mutual affectional bond between a (possible) marriage partner

III. Relating to Changing Social Groups

Early Adolescence

1. Behaving according to a shifting peer code

Late Adolescence

1. Adopting an adult-patterned set of social values by learning a new peer code

IV. Developing a Conscience

Early Adolescence (None listed)

Late Adolescence

1. Learning to verbalize contradictions in moral codes, as well as discrepancies between principle and practice, and resolving these problems in a responsible manner

V. Learning One's Psycho-Socio-Biological Sex Role

Early Adolescence

1. Strong identification with one's own sex mates
2. Learning one's role in hetero-sexual relationships

Late Adolescence

1. Exploring possibilities for a future mate and acquiring "desirability"
2. Choosing an occupation
3. Preparing to accept one's future role in manhood or womanhood as a responsible citizen of the larger community

VI. Accepting and Adjusting to a Changing Body

Early Adolescence

1. Reorganizing one's thoughts and feelings about one's self in the face of significant bodily changes and their concomitants
2. Accepting the reality of one's appearance

Late Adolescence

1. Learning appropriate outlets for sexual drives

VII. Managing a Changing Body and Learning New Motor Patterns

Early Adolescence

1. Controlling and using a "new" body

Late Adolescence (None listed)

VIII. Learning to Understand and Control the Physical World

(No tasks for adolescents are listed under this category)

IX. Developing an Appropriate Symbol System and Conceptual Abilities

Early Adolescence

1. Using language to express and to clarify more complex concepts
2. Moving from the concrete to the abstract and applying general principles to the particular

Late Adolescence

1. Achieving the level of reasoning of which one is capable

X. Relating One's Self to the Cosmos

Early Adolescence (None listed)

Late Adolescence

1. Formulating a workable belief and value system.²⁴

THE ADOLESCENT-PROBLEMS CONCEPT

Up to this point it must be evident to the reader that there is considerable confusion of terminology in trying to understand and interpret adolescent behavior. Even at the risk of adding to this confusion, it seems necessary to discuss the problems approach as a basis for understanding youth. For the same reason that Havighurst abandoned the term "need" in favor of "developmental task," many people are turning to the terms "problem" or "problem area," to identify behavior and to serve as a basis for the curriculum.

A number of checklists have been devised to get at the concerns, worries, or problems of youth. These checklists²⁵ are usually made

²⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 84-87, *passim*. This chart summarizes the discussion in Chapters VI and VII, which should be read in order to get a clear picture of the author's concept of development.

²⁵ See Chapter VIII for an analysis of the Mooney and Starr lists.

up of problems expressed by youth in various contexts. Clearly this is one way of getting at the tensions, disturbances, or maladjustments which are sufficiently well defined by youth to be expressed. Thus such expressed problems might be clearly related to what has been referred to as psychobiological needs. If Johnny says he has a problem in earning enough spending money, he is indicating the recognition of a developmental task such as "achieving economic independence" or a need "to develop salable skills," or the need "for emotional assurance of progress toward adult status." In other words such a concern expressed by Johnny is just a specific manifestation of behavior which is classifiable in a number of ways. Similarly, it would not be difficult to classify such commonly expressed concerns as: "puzzled about prayer," "being overweight," "wondering if I'll find a suitable mate," "wanting to leave home," and "needing a job during vacation," either under the categories of needs or developmental tasks.

But most educators recognize that young people—and older folk as well—may be quite unconscious of the meaning of their disturbances and therefore are not able to express their concerns. Again, the culture makes demands upon young people that cannot wait to be met until an immediate felt need is expressed. For this sort of situation the term "problem" refers not to a felt need or difficulty, but to some condition or situation of which Johnny *should become* conscious. This difficulty bothered the Commission on the Secondary-School Curriculum and the term "need" was expanded to meet it. This gave rise to the personal-social interpretation. Havighurst solved the same problem by substituting the term "*developmental task*." The reader will have to decide which terminology is most satisfactory for his purpose.

The term "problem area" is coming into fairly general use.²⁶ It is used to designate a broad category around which a large number of the problems of adolescents cluster. Thus a problem area entitled *Problems of Home Living* would include a long list of possible

²⁶ See Chapters VI and VIII for lists of problem areas employed in high-school core programs; and Chapter XV for a breakdown of some of these areas in terms of specific problems and activities.

problems which youngsters face in relation to their home environment. This use of the term seems to present no problem to curriculum-development groups.

TRENDS IN ADOLESCENT DEVELOPMENT

Some of the conflicting and perhaps confusing concepts in use in trying to understand the adolescent have been examined and illustrated. In this section an attempt is made to bring together the most pertinent conclusions which can be drawn from authorities in the field of adolescent development. The work of psychologists, mental hygienists, scientific experimentalists, and case workers has been examined in order to determine trends in the development of the adolescent.²⁷ Some of the trends listed are not well documented, but all probably have a sufficient amount of evidence to justify our listing them. The findings should be regarded as tentative and subject to further examination in the light of actual classroom practice.²⁸

The five major categories (*i.e.*, Health, Security, Achievement, Interests, and Outlook on Life) which are used to classify the trends serve only as centers of emphasis, and, of course, are not mutually exclusive. For example, if "health" is taken in its broadest aspects, it would include much that is listed under the other four categories. Any one of the other categories could likewise be expanded to include much of the material. It was felt, however, that they were helpful in serving as a sort of checklist to be sure that no trends were left out, and also that they facilitate an understanding of the many facets of the adolescent personality.

The trends listed do not, of course, point a definite direction for education. It is true that some of the "from-to" statements indicate desirable growth. This is because the characteristics of behavior are profoundly influenced by the nature of the culture in which the adolescent develops. Obviously he reacts in terms of the democratic

²⁷ The study on which this section of the chapter is based was made by a graduate seminar group in secondary education at the Ohio State University under the direction of the author.

²⁸ See, for example, *How Children Develop*. A report of the faculty of the University School, Columbus, The Ohio State University, 1946.

values which impinge upon him in the school and community. If such trends were not in evidence, it would seem to mean that schools were doing little or nothing to develop those characteristics of personality that are held to be desirable in a democratic society. Effective use of these trends in school practice, however, from the standpoint of either the curriculum or guidance, presupposes that the ideals and values of our democratic way of life are utilized to give direction to development. In other words, the statement should be interpreted in the light of a philosophy of education.

At the outset of the study, an attempt was made to use three levels of development (*i.e.*, Early, Middle, and Late) of adolescents as a basis for classification, but it was soon discovered that it was more satisfactory to list the trends as from early adolescence to late adolescence. This is because the behavior of adolescence is so variable, often indicating ambivalence, and also because of wide differences between the sexes and in chronological age groups of the same sex. In short, the findings are held to be reasonably valid only for large groups, and even then great allowances must be made for differing interpretations. When it was impossible to establish a trend as belonging exclusively either to *early* or *late* adolescence, it is listed in the center of the page.

A. MAINTAINING PERSONAL HEALTH AND PROMOTING HEALTHFUL LIVING
BY:

1. Providing for the protective and maintenance phases of health, such as:
 - a. Adequate rest
 - b. Proper diet
 - c. Freedom from infection
2. Providing for recreation
3. Providing for optimum physical and organic development
4. Understanding the concept of normality in relation to one self and others in such aspects as:
 - a. Physical development
 - b. Mental development
 - c. Social development
5. Developing a concern for promoting healthful living in the immediate and wider community

6. Providing for adequate emotional and mental development in relation to personal health

TRENDS

FROM:**TO:**

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. Requiring a minimum of 10–10½ hours of sleep because of the demands of physiological changes taking place within the body | Requiring a minimum of 8–10 hours of sleep because of relative completion of physiological change in the body |
| 2. Tendency to nervous overactivity | |
| 3. Needing a daily caloric intake of 4000 calories for boys and 3000 calories for girls | Needing a daily caloric intake based on standard of adult consumption and amount of work done |
| 4. Having a tendency to over-eat | Having a tendency to base eating habits on food fads which have been accepted by the group as the thing to do |
| 5. Susceptibility to the common cold | |
| 6. Having little or no susceptibility to contagious diseases of childhood | Having susceptibility to food deficiencies, organic, and environmental diseases |
| 7. Not realizing fatigue, and continuing activity until a point of chronic fatigue is reached | Having more resistance to fatigue, becoming somewhat aware of the condition, and discontinuing activity |
| 8. Being extremely interested in strenuous group games and activities with the same sex | Being interested in the opportunities for socialization provided by games and sports with those of the opposite sex |
| 9. Desiring participation in activities with the same sex | Desiring dates with the opposite sex |
| 10. Being interested in organized group activities, such as Boy Scouts or Campfire Girls | Being interested in individualized and small select group activities on adult level—cliques |
| 11. Enjoying outdoor sports, such as picnics, hikes, and expeditions | Continuing interest in sports, but an added enjoyment in sedentary activities, such as visiting, entertaining company, attending concerts, and entertainments |
| 12. Maintaining wide versatility in | Having less versatility in play inter- |

FROM:**TO:**

- | | |
|---|--|
| <p>play interests while practically all games are enjoyed</p> <p>13. Rapidly increasing strength, although lagging behind potential strength of boy's frame</p> <p>14. Being clumsy and awkward</p> <p>15. Rapidly developing physiological changes--heart increasing in size, increasing blood pressure, perspiration increasing, sex glands developing</p> <p>16. Growing unevenly in various parts of the body, legs lengthen, jawbone develops, boys' shoulders widen, girls' hips widen</p> <p>17. Rapidly maturing organs of reproduction and secondary sex characteristics</p> <p>18. Girls developing ahead of boys (about three years); girls heavier and taller</p> <p>19. Having poor posture because of difficulty of adjusting to extremes in weight and height</p> <p>20. Girls having poor posture due to embarrassment caused by development of secondary sex characteristics</p> <p>21. Fatigued posture in evidence</p> <p>22. Desiring participation in vigorous muscular activity (both boys and girls), sports an end in themselves</p> <p>23. Increasing weight due to growth of muscle</p> | <p>ests, and desiring participation in highly organized team games and specialized sports</p> <p>Approximate doubling of boy's strength</p> <p>Improved use of the body and motor ability in games which demand skill</p> <p>Body reaching a state of balanced and harmonious physiological condition</p> <p>Achieving uniformity of development</p> <p>Completion of the development of secondary sex characteristics</p> <p>Boys catching up with girls in pubescent changes, becoming heavier and taller</p> <p>Achieving typically adult posture</p> <p>Girls adjusting to these characteristics, and changing posture (may be good or bad)</p> <p>boys and girls during both stages</p> <p>Daydreaming, imagining. Girls interested in non-strenuous activities, and in sports for social advantages. Boys interested in sports when girls are spectators</p> <p>Increasing weight in girls due to development of subcutaneous layer of fat</p> |
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FROM:

TO:

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|---|---|
| 24. Varying degrees of nervous instability evidenced by reactions to situations, due to uneven development of bodily parts and organs | Beginning of development of insight into motivation of people's activities |
| 25. Fearing that development is not normal | |
| 26. Being unconscious of the body | Girls becoming interested in bodily adornment, and boys in developing a strong physique |
| 27. Feeling socially inadequate | Developing feeling of social adequacy |
| 28. Fearing social situations | Desiring social experiences |
| 29. Highly emotional, and easily motivated by competition in athletics | |
| 30. Alternating periods of fighting and roughhousing with periods of daydreaming and withdrawing | Evidencing adult behavior |
| 31. Changing moods suddenly, from extreme happiness to dullness and moodiness | Maintaining a better balanced condition of emotional expression |

B. ACHIEVING AND MAINTAINING A SENSE OF SECURITY THROUGH:

1. Gaining and holding affection, confidence, and esteem
2. Status within the family group, which includes:
 - a. Feeling of responsibility
 - b. Feeling that one "counts"
 - c. Feeling of "belongingness"
3. Status with agemates of both sexes, which involves:
 - a. Making friends
 - b. Growth toward heterosexual adjustment
 - c. Developing standards of personal conduct
 - d. Allegiance to "gang"
4. Status in groups (school, church, small group activities, etc.)
5. Status in immediate and wider community, which involves:
 - a. Social recognition
 - b. Participation in socially significant activities
6. Status in economic life, which involves:
 - a. Earning money
 - b. Work experience
 - c. Satisfying occupation

TRENDS

FROM:

TO:

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|---|---|
| 1. Being rather boisterous, vigorous, and active in manner | Becoming more dignified and self-controlled |
| 2. Seeking confidence of parents through obedience | Achieving independence by being able and willing to accept accompanying responsibility |
| 3. Having a limited sense of self-confidence and esteem | Developing self-assurance |
| 4. Developing mutual interests and | similar points of view with others |
| 5. Depending upon parents for guidance | Desiring mature relationships with adults other than parents |
| 6. Desiring emancipation and new experiences outside of home; at the same time wanting to keep security of love and understanding in home | Desiring mature relationships in home, and participation as adult in home life. Interpreting family relationships in the light of founding own home |
| 7. Increasing independence | |
| 8. Wanting to understand the physiological features of sex | Understanding emotional and social features of sex as involved in everyday life |
| 9. Associating with "gang" with little regard for age, intelligence, or social status | Seeking membership in those groups in which one most desires status |
| 10. Desiring identification with the herd, the crowd of boys or girls | Identifying self with small select group |
| 11. Experimenting in relations with opposite sex. This behavior usually characterized by teasing and boisterous antics | Dating, looking forward to founding a home |
| 12. Establishing oneself through loyalty to members of one's own sex | Participating in activities involving both sexes |
| 13. Dating only occasionally | Accepting dates and "steadies," as the usual thing |
| 14. Learning how to get along with others | Increasing insights into self and others |
| 15. Attempting to understand masculine or feminine role | Understanding of one's sex role |

FROM:**TO:**

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| 16. Tending to be self-centered | Becoming more cooperative |
| 17. Questioning existing moral and social conditions | Developing more or less stable and consistent attitudes toward life |
| 18. Being a "good mixer" and displaying skill in games with own sex | Developing tact, poise, and other social graces in one's relationships with both sexes |
| 19. Rarely doing or saying anything without first considering the probable reaction of one's group | Desiring approval of small, select groups |
| 20. Desiring regulation and direction, aid in making decisions; yet also desiring freedom and opportunity to assume responsibility | Increasing self-dependence |
| 21. Desiring security of adult understanding, guidance, and friendship | Seeking a place in society of adults, on adult level |
| 22. Beginning identification with community life | Establishing self in relation to community and world |
| 23. Preferring experiences confined to immediate social environment | Reaching toward activities and interests in wider environment |
| 24. Selecting acquaintances from immediate environment | Extending contacts into enlarged social groups in wider environment |
| 25. Identifying oneself with persons very similar to oneself | Finding one's place in the social and economic world |
| 26. Working for little or no financial reward | Working for money to gain economic independence |
| 27. Assuming some responsibility for oneself in family group | Assuming more responsibility in family and other groups on more adult level |
| 28. Deriving occupational interests from life work of family, relatives, and friends | Seriously considering particular types of occupations selected on a more objective basis |
| 29. Willingness to do many different kinds of work | Concentrating on a few more specialized types of work |
| 30. Developing a desire for economic security and independence, manifested in securing part-time jobs, asking for an allowance, being interested in vocational aptitude: | |

C. DEVELOPING AND MAINTAINING A SENSE OF ACHIEVEMENT BY:

1. A sense of personal adequacy through satisfaction in accomplishment, which involves:
 - a. Abilities and requisite skills in sports, games, arts, crafts, special interests, and the like
 - b. Confidence in one's competence in one or more significant areas
2. Successful participation in group activities (school, home, etc.)
3. Successful participation in community life (e.g., community groups, recreation, health, social, and civic organizations)
4. Successful participation in economic life, through
 - a. Part or full-time work, in satisfying socially significant activities
 - b. Planning with others for improving the economic system
5. Gradual attainment of independent status as an adult
6. Understanding of and participating in the solution of basic economic problems (e.g., capital and labor, government control, conflicting economic systems, unemployment, standards of living, and the like)
7. Increasing effectiveness as a consumer of goods and services through:
 - a. Efficient use of authority
 - b. Adequate planning
 - c. Improved standards of judgment
 - d. Improvement of taste

TRENDS**FROM:****TO:**

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|--|---|
| 1. Being absorbed in manipulative, constructive, and experimental activities | Pursuing intellectual activities with enthusiastic devotion |
| 2. Shifting attention frequently | Increasing attention span |
| 3. Having difficulty in concentrating | Increasing ability to concentrate |
| 4. Having little creative ability, making unimaginative configurations | Experimenting with new situations, seeking expression in various arts with reawakened creative spirit |
| 5. Enjoying "gang" activities | Changing social interests toward smaller, more select groups which consider community standing, race, car ownership, etc. |
| 6. Avoiding heterosexual contacts | Increasing interest in opposite sex |

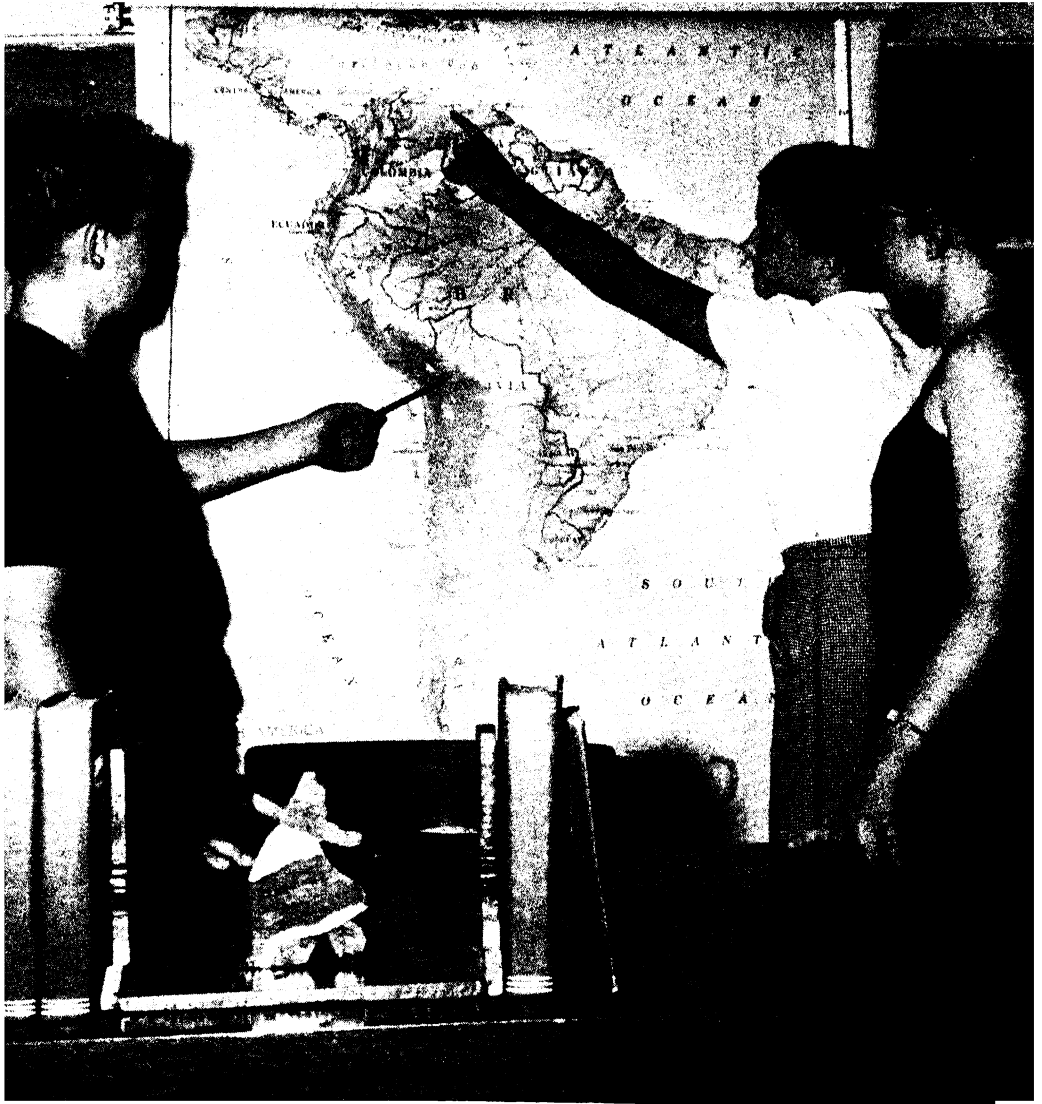


Fig. 3. Seventh-Grade Students at Snow Hill, Maryland, High School Quizzing Each Other on the Location of Cities, Resources, Rivers, and Mountains of South America, as a Part of the Unit. "People of Other Cultures—North and South." *Courtesy Worcester County, Maryland, Schools.*



Fig. 4. Getting Ready for a Committee Report, Core Class, Howard County, Maryland. (See Chapter XIII, pp. 369-381, for a Description of the Unit: "What Makes Us Tick?") *Photo by Arnold G. Harms. Courtesy Howard County, Maryland, Schools.*

FROM:

7. Being physically restless
8. Utilizing frequently varied attention-getting devices
9. Breaking down of well-established childhood standards and values. Uncouth, inconsiderate to family, nail biting, slovenly speech habits, slang and swearing, sloppy dress, lack of care for belongings, etc.
10. Period of regression toward infantile habits of bodily gratification (ambivalence), temper tantrums, greediness, etc.
11. Being interested in Scouts and other democratic groups
12. Behavior fluctuating from roughhousing to daydreaming
13. Lessening of sense of satisfaction in simple preadolescent activities, creative dramatics, helping teacher, simple parties. Antagonistic attitude toward adults at this period
14. Having narrow sociocultural relationships
15. Desiring acclaim of agemates, especially of same sex
16. Increasing emotional instability

TO:

- Achieving greater degree of self-direction, of restlessness along more constructive lines conditioned by the school environment
- Utilizing more subtle attention-getting devices (dress, etc.), attempts to secure prestige through athletics, dramatics, dancing ability, sophisticated behavior, display of femininity and masculinity
- Increasing concern for personal appearance. Greater acceptance of established values. Desire for adult status motivates greater conformity
- Increasing self-control, less confusion of values
- Being interested in sororities, fraternities, and other less democratic groups. Economic and class considerations becoming important
- Inhibiting exuberance of spirit because of desire for adult status
- Increasing sense of establishment of status and willingness to cooperate with others
- Widening sociocultural relationships, identifying self with sociocultural groups, especially underprivileged and heroes
- Desires status and popularity in the total school
- Increasing emotional stability, but instability still a potent factor

FROM:**TO:**

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| <p>17. Showing little concern for more than immediate future. No concentrated interest in social adjustment. Immature and unrealistic vocational attitudes</p> | <p>Exhibiting deep concern for future and for social adjustment, adulthood a general goal. Increasingly intelligent vocational attitudes</p> |
|--|--|

D. DEVELOPING AND MAINTAINING EVER-WIDENING AND DEEPENING INTERESTS AND APPRECIATIONS THROUGH:

1. Understanding and gaining a measure of control over the environment (e.g., scientific, artistic, and literary interests)
2. Understanding of, and respect for, the cultural heritage (e.g., using cultural understandings for improvement of living)
3. Responding to art in all aspects of living
4. Participating in games, sports, hobbies

TRENDS

FROM:**TO:**

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|--|--|
| <p>1. Being concerned primarily with family relationships</p> | <p>Being concerned with ever-broadening relationships outside of the family</p> |
| <p>2. Working out harmonious relationships with siblings and parents</p> | <p>Making more friends, getting along with friends</p> |
| <p>3. Having relatively few, home-centered, specific, concrete interests</p> | <p>Having relatively extensive, catholic, broad interests, not necessarily based on immediate experience</p> |
| <p>4. Liking pets. Wanting possessions as ends in themselves (e.g., bicycles, hunting knives)</p> | <p>Seeing possessions as means to more socialized ends</p> |
| <p>5. Being antagonistic toward opposite sex. Seeking society of members of own sex almost exclusively. Gang age</p> | <p>Developing an active interest in opposite sex. Seeking means of associating with opposite sex</p> |
| <p>6. Caring little about general personal appearance</p> | <p>Paying considerable attention to matters of dress and neatness of appearance</p> |
| <p>7. Displaying independence in social conduct and disdain for manners</p> | <p>Making an attempt to acquire poise and social graces</p> |

FROM:

8. Avoiding dancing. Tending to be self-conscious and unhappy at mixed parties, exhibiting antic, boisterous behavior by way of compensation
9. Exhibiting antagonism toward adults
10. Playing without reference to technique of games or sports
11. Finding intellectual activity interesting only as associated with immediate experiences
12. Manipulating, constructing models and apparatus, tearing up old cars, alarm clocks, etc.
13. Spending allowance with maximum success and satisfaction
14. Definite, but rather unrealistic choice of vocation
15. Regressing in creativity as indicated by waning appreciations and interests in respect to artistic activity
16. Focusing interests on immediate home-centered environment
17. Special interests
 - a) Boys—Driving a car, owning or borrowing a car as sign of status and symbol of sexual role
 - b) Girls—Shopping, personal adornment, lipstick, hairdo, etc., with similar motivation

TO:

- Learning to dance. Participating in parties and other mixed social gatherings as major centers of interest
- Seeking association with adults on adult level of interests
- Playing as a form of social action. Finding satisfaction in the development of techniques
- Finding satisfaction in intellectual activity for its own sake. Finding pleasure in organizing and classifying knowledge
- Seeking functional "why" of things, scientific theories, explanations of the workings of things
- Looking for ways of increasing available spending money as means of establishing relative economic independence
- Developing interest in and more realistic selection of vocation
- Suiging artistic creativity, characterized by imagination and considerable care and precision in work
- Developing high idealism and concern for welfare of society. Identifying self with oppressed social groups or with "causes"

E. ACHIEVING A SOCIAL OUTLOOK ON LIFE THROUGH:

1. Increasing unity and consistency in thinking and acting
2. Personal standards of conduct
3. Increasing ability to deal with related abstractions

4. Increasing ability to recognize and deal with conflicts
5. Increasing understanding of the nature of truth and techniques for discovering and utilizing it

TRENDS

FROM:

1. Acceptance of family and gang standards
2. Loyalty to family, teachers, gang, and friends
3. Egocentric, transient, fanciful, unfruitful, and even impossible plans and purposes
4. First experiences in loving another, in "crushes," and in hero worship
5. Identification with family group
6. Religious concern, on part of some, based on feelings of fear or guilt
7. A great degree of conventionalism and conservatism on social problems

TO:

Formulation of new codes of conduct, ideals, and standards of love, comradeship, and group association

A national and even international loyalty through an increasing degree of conceptualization

Plans and purposes expanding to take in welfare of larger groups and growing more realistic in terms of possibilities inherent in cultural situation and individual potentialities

Satisfactory emotional relationships in personal life which drive individual to strive for success in social-civic and economic life and thus prove worth in adult world

The seeking by some, through an interest in contemporary problems, for identification with mass movements and perhaps for losing themselves in crusading religious or political idealism (May revert to gang-age form of expression, as in fascism)

Tending toward a settlement of religious problems based upon a more abstract concept of God as a disembodied spiritual force, or one based on acceptance of humanitarianism in the place of supernaturalism

A lesser degree of conventionalism and conservatism on social problems, perhaps even to liberalism (Girls usually reject accepted beliefs less frequently than boys.)

SUMMARY

An understanding of the adolescent must be based upon sound principles of behavior and learning. We have seen that any single method of studying the adolescent is seldom used exclusively. Often the case worker uses all of them at certain stages of the process. Group-study methods are frequently supplemented by interviews and even case studies. The wise teacher will use every means at his disposal to gain an understanding of his students. The day-by-day contacts in the classroom, the laboratory, and the playground are potentially most valuable. But the teacher must bring to them a sympathetic understanding of the problems of youth. He must be a student of adolescent development. He must utilize whatever methods he can to make the school an effective instrument in helping young people to grow up in a confused society, that is, in spite of the confusion, attempting to realize democratic values. The cumulative record, the performance on aptitude, special ability, and attitude tests, as well as more informal contacts are all valuable to the teacher who approaches the problem of teaching intelligently and constructively. He cannot rely exclusively upon the expressed or felt needs of his students, for the most cursory survey of the literature reveals that the student is frequently completely unaware of the stresses and strains which are blocking his development. Neither can he rely exclusively upon generalizations about adolescent behavior, for each of his students is a unique personality. He may, however, find clues in such generalizations that will help him to meet his own problems.

The implications of these findings concerning adolescent development for guidance and curriculum reorganization will be developed in later chapters.

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PART II

DETERMINING THE DESIGN OF THE CURRICULUM

CHAPTER V

THE HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM: SUBJECT OR EXPERIENCE-CENTERED?

All of the activities that are provided for students by the school constitute its curriculum. It is by means of these activities that the school hopes to bring about changes in the behavior of students in terms of its philosophy and purposes. It is therefore important that consideration be given to the *kind* and *organization* of learning activities which it provides. In doing this it must take into account the nature of the learner and the basic principles of effective learning. These foundations of the curriculum have been explored in previous chapters.

The purpose of this chapter is to make a critical appraisal of two concepts which have had profound influence in shaping the design of the curriculum. The first of these is the time-honored conception that logical systems of knowledge should be the basis for the curriculum. The second and newer conception is that direct first-hand experiences should play the dominant role in the curriculum. These two conceptions will be examined in turn, and arguments for and against each will be presented. Finally, an attempt will be made to reconcile some of the sharp differences.

SHOULD THE HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM BE SUBJECT-CENTERED?

What Is a Subject? A subject, reduced to its simplest terms, is "one of the branches of learning studied in an educational institu-

tion." It may also be thought of as a segment of race experience so organized as to make it effective in interpreting new experiences. When we speak of the organization of race experience, we refer to the *system* into which the various race experiences fit. This system is built by the specialist and is by its very nature characterized by logical relationships. For example, the facts, fundamental laws and principles which form the basis of the subject of physics have been painfully and laboriously accumulated for many centuries, each scientist beginning where his predecessor stopped, discovering new problems, testing, and verifying, and finally fitting the new discovery into a logical system. Sometimes the newly discovered facts or principles will overthrow the existing system, in which case a new one must be built which forms a better structure for the classification of knowledge. For example, the experiments of Torricelli, Pascal, and others with the rise of liquids in exhausted tubes led to the important discovery of atmospheric pressure. Before this time, the rise of liquids in exhausted tubes had been explained by saying that "nature abhorred a vacuum." The newly discovered facts and principles had to be classified in relationship to the general laws of pressure and weight of liquids and finally to the kinetic theory of gases. The important point to consider in this connection is that the essence of the subject of physics is *systematic organization*. One has only to examine any modern textbook in physics to see how closely this type of organization is followed. Other systems of knowledge such as chemistry, astronomy, and the like, are all characterized by the accumulation of facts and principles organized into a system.

In fields other than science, the general basis of organization is the same. In geography, the system may be developed around the "earth-round" concept, regionalism, or a number of other unifying ideas, but essentially the result is the same. The subject is organized in terms of the relatedness of the material, rather than in terms of the order of experiencing. In history, the organization is usually chronological, though the treatment of the precise order in which events occurred may be subordinated to large related movements or epochs. This is but another way of building a system. Again the principle involved is the same. In mathematical subjects, the situa-

tion is not essentially different. The theorems of geometry all fit together into a related whole, which is determined, not by caprice or individual experiencing, but by logical relationships determined by the specialist and the nature of the subject itself.

These logical systems of knowledge have been taken over by the school and utilized as the subject matter of learning. This means that the material must be simplified in terms of the ability, maturity, and experience of the learner. It has to be made available for large numbers of students of varying abilities and interests. The textbook has served as the most approved instrument for simplifying, illustrating, and adapting the subject-centered curriculum to the learner. It has been regarded as the connecting link between the present ongoing experience of the student, and the highly perfected organization of *past* experience. The important thing to remember is that the *present experience of the learner is subordinated to organized past experience*. The idea of the textbook maker and the teacher is to "psychologize" the subject matter in such a way that the student learns it effectively. The test of the success of teaching is whether or not the student eventually masters the system and can use it in interpreting present and future experiences.

Then when we speak of a subject-centered curriculum, we mean that the organization of learning activities is determined by the logical organization of fields of knowledge, or segments of them. These organized fields of knowledge or segments constitute the backbone of the curriculum. Direct experience is brought in as needed to help in the mastery of the field.

ARGUMENTS FAVORING THE SUBJECT-CENTERED CURRICULUM

Why has the subject-centered curriculum gained such widespread acceptance in the high school? Why has the so-called direct experience curriculum made so little headway in curriculum development? There are a number of reasons for this situation which cannot be ignored by the curriculum maker. Some of the more important of them are analyzed in succeeding sections.

1. *Systematic organization is essential to the effective interpreta-*

tion of experience. Just as the scientist utilizes systematic organizations of facts and principles as tools for making new investigations and discovering new meanings and applications, so the individual interprets his present experience by relating it to concepts, generalizations, or principles that have been built up by the race. The meaning of a present experience is never fully understood until it is effectively related to other experiences, both individual and racial. Current events get their full meaning only in terms of an appropriate historical context. The child does not fully understand the simple experience of touching a burning candle until the meaning of "burning" is understood. When this is seen as an example of oxidization that goes on in a wide variety of ways, the experience takes on many new meanings that are effective in controlling and interpreting new experiences. In this way, a system is built up that has the optimal predictive value. The proponents of the subject-centered curriculum hold that these ready-made systems are necessary for the interpretation of experience. The individual cannot possibly discover the connection himself. Hence, ready-made organizations conserve time and energy, and serve as guides to future experience. It isn't likely that the student will be able to work out for himself a better system of organization. Therefore he had better be taught to use the one that the race has worked out. So runs the argument of the proponents of the subject-centered curriculum.

2. **The organization of the subject-centered curriculum is simple and easily understood.** The scope of the curriculum is usually defined as the areas or functions of living which are explored. It is the entire range of activities which the school utilizes for the purpose of achieving its objectives. When subjects are rejected as the basis of curriculum organization, the problem of determining scope is a very difficult one. Under a subject organization, it is merely a matter of deciding what subjects are to be offered. In practice, this usually involves grouping as constants those subjects that are thought to be indispensable to all students, and other subjects that are offered to meet special interests or needs of students as electives. For example, English and physical education are in most schools regarded as constants while Latin and French are on the elective

list. In order to simplify further the curriculum pattern, many schools have arranged their offerings in groups (sometimes referred to as curriculums) of subjects in terms of specialized purposes of students, e.g., college preparatory, commercial, industrial, scientific, or general. Within these patterns the separation between constants and electives is, of course, maintained. Thus, in small compass, the total scope of the curriculum is schematically presented.¹

The problem of sequence, by which is meant the *order* in which experience (or subject matter) is presented to students, presents few difficulties for the subject-centered curriculum maker. National committees and textbook makers have, in general, solved the major problems in this field. While there is considerable variation, the sequence of subjects within areas is fairly constant. For example, in the area of science, subjects usually appear in the following order: general science, biology, physics, and chemistry. In the social sciences, world history (one or two years) usually precedes economics, sociology, or problems of democracy. In many states, American history is required by law in the eleventh year of the senior high school. These sequences are justified on the grounds that background is needed for the understanding of current problems. In mathematics, simple algebra or general mathematics, usually precedes plane geometry, which in turn always precedes solid geometry or trigonometry. These illustrations are intended to show the relatively simple manner of determining sequence in the subject-centered curriculum. It is merely a matter of arranging predetermined blocks of organized subject matter. Since these blocks are relatively self-contained, any block may be shifted easily without disturbing other blocks, if existing arrangements do not prove satisfactory.

Within a given subject, the scope and sequence is largely determined by the textbook maker. He decides what generalizations,

¹ See the *Report of the Committee of Ten on Secondary School Studies*, New York, The American Book Company, 1893, pp. 37-47 for an interesting illustration of the way scope and sequence are determined. The reader will be struck with the similarity of programs of studies submitted by the committee and those of present-day schools. The pattern set by the committee has persisted with only slight modification for half a century.

problems, facts, and information are appropriate to the subject and the order in which they are to be presented. Frequently the textbook writer has been guided in this task by scientific studies of vocabulary, reading comprehension, student maturity, and the like. At any rate, scope and sequence are clearly determined *in advance* of classroom teaching. In schools that have developed courses of study, the situation is practically identical. The course-of-study maker, utilizing the same sources as the textbook writer, prescribes the general scope of the subject and the order in which the subject matter is to be presented.

This discussion has, of course, oversimplified the problem of scope and sequence as it is solved in the subject-centered school. It is not easy to select the most appropriate textbooks, and there are knotty problems involved in determining which subjects shall be required, which elective, and for what group of students.

In a well-organized subject-centered school the teacher fits neatly into the system. He is guided by the program of studies, with scope and sequence clearly outlined, and a course of study or textbook which, in his specific field, prescribes the ground to be covered (scope) and the order in which subject matter is to be presented to students (sequence). Of course, not all of his problems are solved. He must decide how best to present the material, what supplementary materials are to be utilized, whether to organize the material upon a day-to-day basis or for a longer period of time, and other important questions. The essential point to keep in mind is that the basic structure, or framework, is predetermined. Actual classroom instruction must fit into this general structure.

For the student, the scheme is also clear and intelligible. Having determined the "curriculum" he wishes to pursue, he may readily see the task before him. Sixteen units for graduation, a given number of which are required, define his program. As he "passes" courses, the appropriate units (usually defined as a subject pursued for a year with five class meetings per week) are duly recorded. If he has the misfortune to fail a unit, the difficulty can be remedied by "making it up," without disturbing the general pattern of units which he has "passed."

Since the subject matter is largely predetermined, there are few decisions that have to be made by the student in the day-to-day work of the classroom. He receives his assignments of the ground that he is to cover and if the teacher is clear about this, he knows each day what tasks are to be done and he can budget his time accordingly. Homework is facilitated by definite assignments from the text or workbook.

Thus we see that in essence the subject-centered curriculum by its very simplicity facilitates the development of a smoothly running organization which is easily understood by administrators, teachers, students, and their parents. Its very simplicity is undoubtedly one of the factors that has led to its acceptance and perpetuation.

3 *The subject-centered curriculum is easily changed.* In most schools the curriculum is "revised" by rearranging the blocks (units or subjects), by adding or dropping subjects, and by adopting new textbooks. Thus, the staff may decide that chemistry should precede physics that "consumer science" should replace physics for non-college-bound students or that Latin be no longer required for college-bound students. New subjects such as pre-flight aeronautics, conservation, safety education, and consumer education may be readily added. Usually these new subjects are made elective so that it is not necessary to drop other subjects. Statistics gathered during the past few decades show that few subjects are dropped once they get established in a school, and that new subjects have been added at a rapid rate. New subjects have increased high-school offerings at least fivefold during the past two decades. The ease with which additions may be made is apparent. If it involved laborious examination of the entire offerings of subjects and content within subjects, fewer additions would be made; but since usually this is not done, subject offerings increase by leaps and bounds with a minimum of disturbance and confusion. When textbooks have been in use for the period prescribed by law or by a ruling of the board of education, it is a simple matter to select new ones upon a district or state-wide basis. In this way the subject-centered curriculum is kept relatively up-to-date.

4. *The subject-centered curriculum is easily evaluated.* Since the principal concern is covering ground prescribed by courses of study or textbooks, the evaluation program is centered upon the determination of mastery of the subject matter. Each segment (unit, course, or subject) has its own peculiar demands and these are met through standardized tests, essay-type examinations, and the like. In some cases, uniformity on a city or county-wide basis is secured through the functioning of committees of teachers who prepare the final examinations, or by standardized tests prescribed and administered by the administrative staff. State-wide scholarship tests further promote uniformity for they are usually based upon the textbooks or courses of study most commonly used. Teachers are loath to depart from the textbook lest the students fall down in the tests.

5. *The colleges have generally approved and perpetuated the subject-centered curriculum through admission requirements.* Traditionally, students have been admitted to college upon the basis of units or credits in specified subjects or by entrance examinations covering the various subject fields. It is logical that this should be the case, for college curriculums are almost exclusively subject-centered. The questionable assumption has been made that certain patterns of units are essential background for successful achievement in college. Naturally high-school principals desire earnestly that their graduates succeed in college. The best way to insure this success is to meet fully the demands of the colleges as to desirable patterns of units. High-school programs of study show clearly this influence. If a high school can offer only a small number of subjects, the demands of the colleges are met first, even though only a small percentage of students may attend college.

In general, the colleges resist accepting subjects such as general science, general mathematics, general language, and the like, for the fulfillment of college-entrance requirements. The practical arts and vocational subjects have also been looked on with suspicion, especially by certain of the Eastern colleges. This attitude has tended to hamper the development of these subjects and to promote a sharp dualism between the programs of the college-bound student and his fellow who completes his formal education in the

high school. The colleges have also offered resistance to the acceptance of credit in "fused" or "core" courses. It is not unusual for schools that have unified English and social science in terms of a single course to have to "unscramble" them to conform to the requirements of the colleges for specified numbers of units in English and history. Progress is being made along this line, but the fact still remains that the colleges are a potent influence in maintaining the *status quo* of the high-school curriculum.

6. *The subject-centered curriculum is generally approved by teachers, parents, and students.* Since the subject-centered curriculum is in use almost universally in high schools, colleges, and universities, it follows that teachers and parents are products of this system of education. High-school teachers, as has been discussed previously, have been trained specifically to teach one or more subjects. This means that in college they have built up "majors" in these fields by means of sequences of specialized, logically organized courses. To these have been added "special methods courses." Prospective teachers are, therefore, equipped to go into the high school and teach specific subjects. They do have some background in modern psychological and educational theory, but this is usually at variance with their academic preparation and their student teaching, which is almost inevitably carried out in a conventional subject field. As stated before, they discover that their preparation fits well into the program which they find in operation in the schools in which they secure jobs. The pressure of this practical situation makes it impossible to apply the theory of the way learning takes place and the way learning experiences should be organized, and the teacher readily and happily accepts the subject-centered system as unavoidable and even desirable. In like manner, since all of the formal education of parents, and generally of students, has been in subject-centered programs, there is a general assumption that the system is sound and should be continued. They tend to distrust courses labeled "core," "orientation," or "general education" as passing fancies and frills. They are apt to regard trips, excursions, student planning, projects, and the like, as conducted tours or entertainments which are amusing but through which little is learned.

The covering of ground in a textbook and the mastery of the subject matter contained therein is more tangible and more in keeping with the conception of real learning to which parents and students are accustomed.

ARGUMENTS AGAINST THE SUBJECT-CENTERED CURRICULUM

In spite of its universality, its general acceptance by the colleges, parents, teachers, and students, and its respectability in terms of the cultural heritage, the subject-centered curriculum has been under fire for some time and many successful attempts have been made to improve it. Some of these are within the patterns of "subjects" while others break more or less completely with the traditional conceptions of curriculum organization. Let us examine in some detail the general criticisms that are being made of the subject-centered curriculum.

1. *The subject-centered curriculum is psychologically unsound.* It would be absurd to deny the value of systematized race experience as a vital and necessary instrument for educating the student. Such organization is the result of the struggle of the human race toward civilization. Without these formulated race experiences, man would be little better than the lower animals because he would not be able adequately to profit from the experiences of the past. Education is essentially a process of growth. Starting from a world that William James characterized as a "blooming, buzzing, confusion," the child gradually extends his experiences, both first-hand and vicarious, to the point where he is able to weave unity and consistency into his world. He gradually brings order and system into his life. In this task, race experience is invaluable. He draws upon subject matter to solve his problems, meet his needs, and extend his interests. From the time he builds block houses on the floor, to the establishment of a home of his own, he is drawing heavily upon the experiences of the race. Very early in life, simple stories and pictures of the way other people live help him to understand better his own home. Gradually as he develops more and more skill in reading, he extends the range of his environment. He builds new concepts of

"houses," "homes," and "family life." As he is confronted with problems, he is helped to meet them by finding out how others have solved similar problems. As he becomes more mature, he is able to use race experience more and more effectively. Gradually he comes to the point where systematic treatments of science, mathematics, social science, art, are the most effective tools he can use in solving the problem of establishing his own home. He draws from these systems of knowledge to plan, build, and finance his home. His intellectual and esthetic values are recreated through the constant use of organized subject matter. He has reached the stage in which the psychological and the logical become one and the same thing. But note that direct, first-hand experience is always *antecedent*. Organized subject matter is the instrument for enriching and *extending* it. It is not the *end*, or the goal. The goal for the student is the resolution of tensions, the solving of problems, the satisfaction of needs which grow out of the interactions of a living, dynamic, purposing organism in an equally dynamic environment.

There is an exceedingly wide gap between the experience of the child and the logically formulated experience of the race. This means that while logical relationships are essential in the *organization* of experience, they cannot be imparted ready-made to the child, as John Dewey pointed out many years ago. He stated:

Facts are torn away from their original place in experience and re-arranged with reference to some general principle. Classification is not a matter of child experience, things do not come to the individual pigeon-holed. The vital ties of affection, the connecting bonds of activity, hold together the variety of his personal experiences. The adult mind is so familiar with the notion of logically ordered facts that it does not recognize—it cannot realize—the amount of separating and reformulating which the facts of direct experience have to undergo before they can appear as a "study" or branch of learning. A principle, for the intellect, had to be distinguished and defined, facts have had to be interpreted in relation to this principle, not as they are in themselves. They have to be regathered about a new center which is wholly abstract and ideal. . . . The studies as classified are the product in a word, of the science of the ages, not of the experience of the child.²

² John Dewey, *The Child and the Curriculum*, pp. 10–11. Copyright, 1902, by the University of Chicago Press, Chicago.

The difficulty of using these ready-made organizations of race experiences has been emphasized by so many writers that we need only to mention it briefly here. There is the ever-present danger that the learning which results from such organizations is apt to be what is popularly called "book learning." The students learn symbols: words, without having behind them meaningful experiences. They learn to recite definitions from the textbook glibly, without having the slightest notion of their real meaning. A striking example of this point is found in the familiar story of the failure of many students living in a certain city located on the Mississippi River, to make any connection whatever between the Mississippi River about which they studied in their textbooks and the stream of water which flowed past their doors. The textbook study evidently had failed to function in the life and experiences of the student. Even though he learned to recite the material to the complete satisfaction of the teacher, he merely acquired verbal knowledge which was soon forgotten because it failed to function in experience. In a real sense it served effectively to separate the student from his world.

Such is the indictment against the logical organization of subject matter. Society has sought to transmit the experiences of the race in the form of a definite logically organized curriculum with the result that the gulf between the growing child and society has become wider and wider as race experience, because of the increasing complexity of civilized social life, makes adult activities more and more remote from the experiences of childhood.

Even though it is recognized in the light of the newer psychology that such systematized knowledge is often far from experience, particularly of adolescents, this is very different from saying that such knowledge cannot be made to function in experience through proper treatment. Race experience cannot and need not be ignored. Through the student's ability to use language, experience remote in time and place can be made vital. "Book learning" deserves all the scorn and ridicule which it has received, but the remedy lies along the line of vitalizing race experience rather than discarding it. Thus logical organization properly utilized implies not only an educational ideal of a remote future but is very significant in deter-

mining a direction which the educative process should take. It becomes, as Dewey points out, a guiding principle for dealing with the present development of the student's experience. It affords a guiding principle in interpreting and giving direction to the activity of the student. In succeeding chapters we shall attempt to show more clearly how this may be accomplished.

2. *The subject-centered curriculum is remote from the democratic values that the modern school seeks to achieve.* Even though we grant the merits of logical systems of knowledge in helping the student to meet his problems, and eventually to refine his own conceptual system, it must be emphasized that this value is not achieved directly but rather through *helping* the student to use *race* experience effectively. The center of orientation is *the student and his world* rather than the refined system of knowledge of the world of adults. The democratic school is seeking to build characteristics of personality such as creativeness, cooperativeness, social sensitivity, ability to think reflectively, and tolerance. These values are best achieved when the actual vital experience of the student in living his life in the home, the school, and the community is made the center of his curriculum. To attempt to achieve them by centering exclusively upon accumulated *race* experience tends to promote mere verbalism and frequently to set up a dualism between the life of the student and the work of the school. Achieving democratic values is a matter of *living* them, and of reflecting upon the experiences that are being lived.

One reason why so many very good statements of democratic objectives have failed to influence practices is that the school has adopted these values but has failed to change the curriculum in order to use the most effective means of achieving the ends. It associates thinking with the mastery of facts on the plausible grounds that facts are needed with which to think. It approves highly of social sensitivity, cooperativeness, and tolerance as ends but assumes that ideas *about* them will take effect in conduct without actual living experience. The time-worn analogy of the correspondence course in swimming applies here. The student may "pass." In neither case can he apply what he has "learned."

SHOULD THE HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM BE EXPERIENCE-CENTERED?

Let us now turn to the experience-centered curriculum in order to examine its nature and the advantages and disadvantages which are claimed for it.

The Nature of Experience. Experience is a weasel word. To the man of the street it means participation in anything, the actual living through an event, "skill, facility, or functional knowledge gained through *personal* knowledge, feeling, or action." To have experience playing golf means actual participation in the game, rather than the mere reading about it in books. It is the difference between "feeling" the club head as it swings "through" the golf ball—or rather the arc in which the golf ball is located, and being told or reading about the proper stance, the arc of the swing, and the like. To the philosophers, experience is the sum total of all knowable reality. It is this wide difference in interpretation that gets us into trouble when we speak of the experience-centered curriculum in contrast with the subject-centered curriculum. Subject matter is refined and organized *race* experience; it becomes incorporated into the behavior of the individual—that is, becomes a part of individual experience—when it is appropriated and used to interpret ongoing activity. Thus, *race* experience becomes inseparably bound up with individual experience as learning takes place. Reading *about* the way the professional golfer thinks the club should be swung may really serve to modify the individual golf player's experience. When it does, it becomes an inseparable part of the experience itself.

From an educational standpoint, John Dewey has helped us to arrive at a fruitful notion of experience and to develop a working conception of it in relation to the school program. In a much quoted and frequently misunderstood passage, he states:

The nature of experience can be understood only by noting that it includes an active and passive element peculiarly combined. On the active hand, experience is *trying*, a meaning which is explicit in the connected term *experiment*. On the passive, it is *undergoing*. When we experience something we act on it, we do something with it; then we suffer or under-

go the consequences. We do something to the thing and then it does something to us in return; such is the peculiar combination. The connection between these two phases of experience measures the fruitfulness or value of the experience. Mere activity does not constitute experience. It is dispersive, centrifugal, dissipating. Experience as trying involves change but change is meaningless transition unless it is consciously connected with the return wave of consequences which flow from it. When an activity is continued *into* the undergoing of consequences, when the change made by action is reflected back into a change made in us, the mere flux is loaded with significance. We learn something. It is not experience when a child merely sticks his finger into a flame, it is experience when the movement is connected with the pain which he undergoes in consequence. Henceforth the sticking of the finger into the flame *means* a burn. Being burned is a mere physical change, like the burning of a stick of wood, if it is not perceived as a consequence of some other action.

Blind and capricious impulses hurry us on heedlessly from one thing to another. So far as this happens, everything is writ in water. There is none of that cumulative growth which makes an experience in any vital sense of that term. On the other hand, many things happen to us in the way of pleasure or pain which we do not connect with any prior activity of our own. They are mere accidents so far as we are concerned. There is no before or after to such experience; no retrospect or outlook, and consequently no meaning. We get nothing which may be carried over to foresee what is likely to happen next, and no gain in ability to adjust ourselves to what is coming—no added control. Only by courtesy, can such an experience be called experience. To “learn from experience” is to make a backward and forward connection between what we do to things and what we enjoy or suffer from things in consequence. Under such conditions doing becomes a trying, an experiment with the world to find out what it is like, the undergoing becomes instruction—discovery of the connection of things.³

Reduced to its simplest terms, then, experience starts with a dynamic interaction between the organism and the environment. The organism *acts* and the environment strikes back. When the interconnections are seen, we are said to have an experience. As in the case of the child and the flame, the interconnections are not hard to discover. The experience is a very simple one. But as action becomes more complicated and the environmental aspects become

³ John Dewey, *Democracy and Education*, pp. 163-164. Copyright, 1916, by The Macmillan Company, New York.

more complex, confusion results and interpretation becomes difficult. When interpretation involves the resolution of doubts or hypotheses by making further observation, by more *action*, we have "reflective experience," or reflective thinking. We then have a forked-road situation. Action is temporarily blocked. Out of previous experience or additional activity of one sort or another, inferences arise that are tested by further action. We say then that a reconstruction of experience has taken place. *Flame* comes to mean danger, warmth, beauty, and in a more technical sense, oxidation. New experiences with fire are interpreted in terms of the old. Flame becomes a thing that may burn, or that may give enjoyment depending upon the total situation. This is undoubtedly the highest type of learning, and man's superiority in this respect marks him off from the lower animals. Our education program becomes effective very largely to the extent that it fosters this continuous reconstruction of experience.

Some Misconceptions of the Nature of Experience. The difficulty with a good many educational interpretations of experience is that they utilize only one phase of the two aspects of experience as the basis for their theory and program. The early proponents of the "activity curriculum" ⁴ placed an unduly heavy emphasis upon mere physical activity. If the child were doing something, if he were active, then education was supposed to be going on, and the result was good. To help him to see the connections between his activity and past experience and future action was regarded as adult imposition. Consequently, there sprang up "child-centered" schools in which, for the most part, children decided what they wanted to do. There was almost a complete failure to "undergo," or to use another term, to intellectualize the activities—to discover their meanings. Thus, the securing of appropriate control over subsequent experience was accidental—a matter of chance. To rationalize this failure to help the child to see the full significance of what he did, elaborate theories of child creativeness were built up

⁴ For a complete analysis of the activity concept, see *The Activity Movement*. Thirty-third Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Public School Publishing Company, 1934, Part II.

by the use of appropriate subject-matter. "Follow the lead of the child" became the slogan. Give him a chance to develop and all things will be added unto him. Surround him with books and all sorts of materials such as blocks, paints, tools of all kinds, sand, lumber, sewing machines. One writer put it in this fashion:

Now what happens when a child is not dictated to and is set down with materials such as these? If he is emotionally untrammelled and physically sound so that he can function normally it is safe to say that his use of the material will be creative. Watch a two-year-old piling his blocks. If some adult has not ruined his first efforts by showing him how, he quite uncannily arranges them in designs having no small degree of balance and proportion. Leave a child alone with paints or crayons and large sheets of paper and after a period of random smearing he will begin to draw amazing things, astonishing both in line and color.⁵

This, of course, was an extreme reaction against traditional education which emphasized only one aspect of the nature of experience.

The proponents of the traditional subject-centered curriculum, on the other hand, have stressed the interpretative or undergoing aspect of experience. Events remote in space and time, subject matter having little or no relationship to the ongoing life that is being lived, facts and information "torn away from their setting in experience," are imposed upon the child. To be sure, activity is aroused, but it is activity connected with the teacher's purpose rather than activity aroused by the child's own purposes, by his quest for the solution of a problem. Subject matter used in this way, to quote Dewey's phrase, becomes "a mind crushing load."

A Reinterpretation of Experience. But to regard the curriculum as an "either-or" proposition is to create a dualism that has no foundation in sound theory or practice. In any complete learning situation, activity and interpretation are always present, though, of course, in greatly varying degrees. Suppose, for instance, we take a typical example of learning in a subject-centered curriculum. In

⁵ Agnes DeLima, *Our Enemy the Child*, p. 6. Copyright, 1925, by The New Republic, Inc., New York. See also, Ellsworth Collings, *An Experiment with a Project Curriculum*. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1923. And J. L. Meriam, *Child Life and the Curriculum*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, World Book Company, 1920, p. 158.

an agriculture class, a boy studies different types of soils, how to improve them through fertilization, drainage, etc.; he learns of the kind of soil best adapted to the growth of corn. He learns the different types of corn, their uses, yields, marketable value, the proper time for planting, the appropriate cultivation, the harvesting, the final marketing, and a host of other facts and information that all fit together into a logical system. At appropriate times, the teacher demonstrates, or the student experiments in the laboratory. At all times, the teacher draws upon the former experiences of the student. This was essentially the method of curriculum organization in agricultural education prior to the introduction of the project method in 1911. Contrast this procedure with the actual raising of a field of corn by the student. He selects his plot of ground, his seed, and proceeds through the various stages until the corn is finally marketed. At various steps in the process, he has to draw upon organized subject matter. He cannot even determine the proper soil without some help from race experience. The corn isn't growing properly. What is the matter? He consults subject matter pertaining to diseases, proper cultivation, proper nourishment, and the like, to find a solution for this problem. What is the essential difference between the two activities? In the first case, organized subject matter is the center. Experience is drawn upon to illustrate and vitalize the subject matter that is logically presented. The hope is that it will function in future experience. In the other case, personal, direct experience is antecedent to subject matter. The experience has its own logic, its beginning and its end. Subject matter is taken from its place in the logical system into which it has been classified by the specialist and used to enrich and make meaningful the ongoing activity. In the first illustration the boy has learned *about* raising corn, in the second he has *raised* corn, and learning is instrumental to that end. The point which should be made is that subject matter and activity are present in both cases. This is why we have termed one kind of curriculum organization, *subject-centered* and the other *experience-centered*. Miseducation can result when subject matter is not connected with vital experience, but

it can also result when vital personal experience is not connected with appropriate subject matter.

But even though we accept the above generalization, the problem still remains as to which *center* is best for curriculum organization. Shall actual experience be antecedent, concomitant, or subsequent to subject matter, and what shall be the principle of organization? One answer gives us a subject-centered curriculum, the other an experience-centered curriculum.

Basic Principles of Experience-Centered Activities. Before making a survey of the advantages and disadvantages of the experience-centered curriculum, we can make the concept more explicit by suggesting certain principles that are pertinent to experience-centered activities.

1. *Learning (the acquisition of attitudes, knowledge, skills, abilities, and the like) is usually, if not always, incidental to the achievement of some more or less tangible or concrete end or goal.* This principle was implicit in the previous illustration of a boy who set about raising an acre of corn, as contrasted with the boy who learned about raising corn from a textbook. In the first instance, the boy's primary purpose obviously was not to learn, but rather to accomplish a very concrete and tangible goal. He probably had in mind a certain yield which might be expected and more specifically the amount of money he should be able to clear on the project in terms of current market trends. The changes in behavior that resulted from his activities are more or less incidental to the activity. This doesn't mean that the learning is not important. Indeed, in the mind of the teacher, it is probably *the* most important result, for he is trying, through the experience, to bring about more and more control over his environment on the part of the student. That is, the teacher is trying to help the boy to reconstruct his experience. His success is measured by the learning products that result. The expectation is that more effective learning will result when the problem is approached in this manner. Otherwise, the teacher would use the more traditional method—the memorization of facts and principles. In many curricular activities, the principle

is not as clear-cut as in the illustrations cited, but in essence it is applicable to most situations. Other examples are the following: (1) Making a product chart of the New England region; (2) preparing a brief to convince the city council that it should build a swimming pool; (3) dramatizing the quarrel scene between Brutus and Cassius; (4) making a community survey; (5) making a school garden; (6) painting murals for the cafeteria; (7) publishing a school newspaper; (8) writing and presenting a school play; (9) beautifying the school grounds; (10) organizing a student council; (11) collecting scrap metals; (12) selling war savings stamps; (13) keeping accounts for the school lunchroom. Note that in all of these activities learning as such is subordinated to active, vital, personal experiencing.

2. The present experience of the student, his problems, and interests play a dominant role in the determination of appropriate activities and in planning, executing, and evaluating outcomes. • At the outset, it should be made clear that all activities, whether they be experience or subject-matter centered, are most effective when the above principle prevails; but when the very nature of the activity depends upon its close relationship with the ongoing life that is being lived by the student, the principle takes on new meanings. Extrinsic motivation in a Latin class may be gradually transformed into wholehearted interest in due time, but the direct-experience activity is doomed to failure from the start if the student is not activated by a strong motive for carrying it forward. Theoretically, of course, coercion could be used to get a boy to raise the acre of corn, but since essentially the same learning products may be secured by a wide variety of activities, it would be foolish and relatively ineffective to use force in initiating the project. That the above generalization is true in practice is evident from the widespread practice of granting teacher-student planning a significant place in carrying the experience-centered curriculum into effect. Schools that have moved in the direction of the experience-centered curriculum have generally given more and more attention to student initiative. This is no accident for it is part and parcel of the plan. Having once launched upon a given activity, the solution

of the problem involved usually affords sufficient motivation, for the student can see what has to be done at each successive stage. The unfinished radio virtually cries out for completion, the corn will rot if it isn't harvested, the half-furnished room that is being decorated, silently reproaches those who would leave it in its unfinished state. These facts do not suggest a *laissez-faire attitude* on the part of the teacher. They simply make the job of the teacher more significant—and in the long run more satisfying.

3. *The sequence of activities is determined primarily, not by the internal logic of a field of knowledge but rather by maturational levels, integration of personality, growth processes, extension of problems, and interests.* It was shown in the previous section that the subject-centered curriculum depends largely for its sequence upon the logical organization of the subject. The goal is mastery of the system. The teacher tries to find appropriate ways of doing this. It may be through extrinsic motivation. The subject matter may be "sugar-coated" by attaching it, for purposes of instruction, to the student's interests, but the sequence is determined, for the most part, by considerations that are "outside" of the student. If the student is studying world history, the teacher does the best he can to make Greek civilization interesting. If the student finds no interest in it, he "learns" it anyway—at least he goes through the motions of learning it. When the time has arrived for the study of quadratic equations, the assumption is that the student is ready and that the subject can be made interesting. Neither the student nor the teacher is likely to challenge the fixed sequence of the textbook. The teacher may rationalize his failure to interest the student in the material by claiming that it is good discipline for him to learn it.

In theory at least the situation is reversed in the case of the experience-centered curriculum because the environmental situation, the stresses and strains that are operating, and the definable problems of the student, his growth and development, become the central factors in determining what to do next. This does not mean that the student does whatever he wants to do. It means that the wise teacher, looking at the student in terms of all the factors that are affecting his present living—his hopes and aspirations—becomes

a partner with him in planning the sequence of his experience. One unit or experience leads into another. New environmental factors press in and claim recognition. The determination of sequence becomes a sort of touch-and-go affair that cannot be categorized in terms of so much ground to be covered during the month of September.

For example, a community survey may be almost completely factual at first, but as the study progresses new lines of activity are revealed. Poor housing is discovered. Why do half of the people live in slums? Why are there inadequate recreational facilities in certain sections of the city? Why are delinquency and crime most prevalent in these sections? These are the lines of investigation that may develop, but they cannot be prescribed in advance without robbing the students of the thrill of adventure.

Again, pressing problems of etiquette, social usage, face-to-face relationships have their way of coming into the lives of students at certain maturational levels. They do not wait until the appropriate place in the textbook has been reached. And later stages of growth bring other problems that do not concern earlier adolescence at all. To impose the problem, say, of making a choice of vocation upon the young adolescent is to violate the developmental process. Such problems are thrust at the older adolescent by life itself through the very process of growing up and by the adolescent's attempt to achieve an independent status in society. That is one reason why the introduction of courses in "occupational civics," vocations, etc., in the eighth and ninth grade has been a failure in so many schools. These courses are, in part at least, the result of the mistaken notion that one widely publicized function of the junior high school was "to start each pupil on a career which, as a result of his exploratory courses, he, his parents, and the school are convinced is most likely to be of profit to him and to the state." "It was a logical idea which readily caught the imagination of school administrators and teachers, but it ignored the psychology of adolescent development.

⁶ Thomas H. Briggs, *The Junior High School*. Boston, Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1920, pp. 175-176.



Fig. 5. Students of Ellicott City High School, Maryland. Engaging in a Panel Discussion in Connection with a Unit of Work. *Photo by Arnold G. Harms. Courtesy Howard County, Maryland, Schools.*



Fig. 6. A Modern High School Building, Farmont Heights High School, Prince George's County, Maryland. *Courtesy Prince George's County, Maryland, Schools*

ARGUMENTS FAVORING THE EXPERIENCE-CENTERED CURRICULUM

We now turn to the appraisal of the experience-centered approach to learning, by looking at the arguments which have been advanced in its favor.

1. *The experience-centered curriculum is very closely related to the needs, problems, and interests of youth.* This principle is almost axiomatic, for when the school breaks with logically organized subject matter as a basis for the curriculum, it does so in order to plan its program in terms of actual first-hand experience. As has been pointed out, this does not mean that the racial heritage is thrown overboard, but rather that it is used to enrich and interpret individual experience. Most experience-centered units of work utilize more rather than less organized subject matter than the traditional textbook assignment.

2. *The experience-centered curriculum utilizes to the fullest extent the environment, both physical and social.* We shall see in the next chapter how the schools that are moving in the direction of the experience-centered curriculum stress community study and participation. This again seems to be a natural emphasis, when the school breaks with the academic tradition.

3. *The experience-centered curriculum is easily oriented in terms of democratic values.* Democracy is primarily a way of living. The group project, the unit planned cooperatively, the study of the community, all lend themselves admirably to the development of distinctively democratic values, for it is in the processes of living that we see democracy at work and in which we test its effectiveness.

4. *The experience-centered curriculum possesses significant potentialities for unifying the school and the community.* When the community serves as a laboratory for the study of living problems, the community is brought nearer to the school. Many of the activities that the school provides require the active participation of the community. In this way, the objectives of school life and community life tend to merge. This does not mean that good school-community

relationships are possible only in an experience-centered school. It *does* mean, however, that good relationships are stimulated and facilitated by such an organization.

5. *The experience-centered curriculum promotes the unification of the various aspects of school living.* It is axiomatic that to the extent the learning activities are broadened in terms of personal social-economic problems, the teaching staff, the students, and the community are virtually "forced" into close cooperation. The word, *force*, is used advisedly. It does not mean external coercion, but rather the compulsion of the situation itself. Broad enterprises such as are a part of the thoroughgoing experience-centered curriculum will not be successful unless all of the resources of the school, personal and material, are used economically and efficiently. Again, as students assume responsibility in helping to plan the major activities, the distinctions between the curricular and the extra-curricular tend to disappear. The same kind and quality of intelligent participation, that has characterized the work of the student council at its best, will also characterize the student's participation in the day-to-day life of the school.

6. *The experience-centered curriculum is consistent with the new psychology of learning.* Learning is an active process. It takes place best when the organism is confronted with genuine problems that require the use of the method of intelligence. The experience-centered curriculum provides admirably the setting for this type of activity. Again the facing of situations that are part and parcel of the student's changing environment is the best guarantee of the transfer of training to new situations, provided that the teacher is alert to the possibilities of transfer. The unified character of the activities undertaken stimulates and facilitates the process of integration in the growth of the student.

ARGUMENTS AGAINST THE EXPERIENCE-CENTERED CURRICULUM

In spite of the fact that the experience-centered curriculum seems to be consistent with the democratic philosophy and the newer psychology, it has not found ready acceptance in the high school.

A discussion of some of its alleged weaknesses may help us to understand why this is true.

1. *Some educators contend that facts and principles that are learned in the matrix of direct experience are not permanently retained or applied readily to new situations.* This is an argument against incidental learning of all sorts.⁷ There is probably an element of truth in this claim, provided that the teacher is not conscious of the necessity for helping the student to intellectualize his experience. It must be admitted that there is no automatic transfer, and that teachers are frequently guilty of assuming that there is transfer where none exists. A class may be engaging in a truly democratic activity. Many of the elements of the democratic process may be clearly obvious to the trained adult who is participating in or observing the situation. They may not be obvious at all to the group of students. The students may not really know what is behind what they are doing. If activities are to be educative, if they really are to function in the reconstruction of experience, they must be intellectualized. Otherwise they become meaningless routine. To the extent that the school fails to help students to comprehend the full implication of what they do, the criticisms that have been leveled at the school are justified.

2. *Teachers are not prepared to carry on experience-centered programs.* This is certainly true, and it has been shown in numerous connections in this book why it is so. It goes back to the preparation and experience of the teacher, and to the forces of tradition that are operating on him—most of which perpetuate the subject-centered approach. The more prepared the teacher is in some specialized field, the more difficult it is for him to see possibilities in the experience-centered approach. And, as has been pointed out, teacher-education institutions are not helping much to prepare teachers for this shift in emphasis. But the school should really become a learning laboratory for its teachers. In-service education programs under the guidance of a good leader can accomplish

⁷ Many years ago Bagley voiced this criticism of the Project Method. Since then it has been reiterated frequently. The so-called essentialists would in general support this position.

wonders with teachers whose minds are not closed to the possibilities of change.

3. *Communities do not readily accept the shift in emphasis from the subject-centered to the experience-centered program.* There is much truth in this assertion. It is no accident that the so-called community school has thrived best in relatively backward, or perhaps we could say, "deprived" communities. If a community has no motion-picture theater, it accepts, even applauds the school's efforts to supply one. If it has no general store, the operation of a "co-operative" by the school is logical. If vegetables are spoiling in the fields, the school's help in harvesting and preserving them is welcomed. When industry cannot obtain sufficient adult workers, youth are readily given employment. Work experience is held to be an excellent thing for all students, but usually it is limited to the less favored economic groups. In other words, the experience-centered program often works best in deprived areas, and with deprived groups of students. All this must be changed if the new program is ever to gain wide acceptance. Can it be done? It has already been shown that along with an awakening of community consciousness there is a trend toward the organization of councils made up of representative groups including the school. These have become clearing houses for projects of community improvement pertaining to health, recreation, and social and civic betterment. The school can play a significant role in such an organization. Then, too, there are signs that industrial life is undergoing change toward greater social responsibility. As management and labor come to recognize their responsibilities in developing citizenship, the aims of the school and industrial life will tend to become more unified, and youth will find educative experience in industrial life, just as he now finds educative experience in farm life through the vocational agriculture programs that are common in many rural high schools.

One of the reasons why citizens sometimes do not accept experience-centered programs, is that they do not understand them. They do not see how the so-called "fundamentals" can be taught through projects, units of work, excursions, etc. The school has a responsi-

bility to carry on a sound public relations program to correct these misconceptions.

4. *School plants are not equipped to carry on an experience-centered program.* Again the truth of this assertion must be generally admitted. There are many practical arts shops being built today that contain no equipment for the repair of an automobile, to say nothing of being able to get an automobile into them. There are many, many schools being built with no provision for the care of animals, with completely inadequate libraries, with no provision for arts and crafts, with no space surrounding the school for anything but an athletic stadium. But on the other hand, until schools—administrators and teachers themselves—become conscious of the need for a new type of education, these conditions will continue to exist.

And all over the land we have illustrations that the sort of buildings, equipment, and grounds that are needed have been made available and are functioning. In other words, the ideas presented herewith are not so novel that they cannot be documented in current programs.

5. *The experience-centered curriculum does not make adequate provision for logical organization.* Many of the proponents of the experience-centered curriculum are to be blamed for this criticism. They deserve it. When the logical organization of subjects is abandoned with its easily understood scope and sequence, all too frequently *all* organization is shown the door. Dewey's plea for the necessity of a philosophy, and an appropriate organization of experience⁸ is a warning that mere activity is not effective in reconstructing present experience. It was undoubtedly prompted by unintelligent applications of the experience approach. Before the respect of the rank and file of administrators and teachers can be secured, an adequate frame of reference must be provided that will yield sound principles for determining scope and sequence. Otherwise, the experience-centered curriculum is opportunistic and superficial and doomed to failure.

⁸ John Dewey, *Education and Experience*. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1938.

CAN THE SUBJECT AND EXPERIENCE-CENTERED CONCEPTS BE RECONCILED?

Our brief examination of these two important concepts reveals that they are based upon quite different psychological approaches. Yet, in terms of practice, they have much in common.

Direct Experience in the Subject-Centered Curriculum. Current practices in the subject-centered approach reveal that in the better schools, direct first-hand experience is being more widely utilized to vitalize instruction.

The social-studies area places much stress upon trips to community and governmental agencies; the best science programs include individual and group experiences not only in the laboratory, but also in the community. The breeding and raising of animals has become an indispensable part of biology and general-science courses; mathematics has deserted the classroom and found many of its problems in the life of the students, the school, and the community; the language-arts area emphasizes script writing of original plays for production on radio and television; foreign-language teachers are beginning to realize the value of direct experience in teaching a foreign tongue.

The following illustrations may help to point up the fact that there are untold possibilities for introducing direct experience into the subject-centered curriculum. They are selected almost at random from Mort and Vincent's recent study.⁹

Safety Survey. Following our study of home safety, my seventh-grade pupils undertook to make an inspection of their homes. They listed all the fire hazards and all the safety hazards which they found. Each pupil brought his list to class. The class divided into groups to consider the individual reports of the members. In their discussion the groups decided what should be done to remedy each hazardous situation. These sugges-

⁹ By permission from *Modern Educational Practice*, by Paul R. Mort and William S. Vincent. Copyright, 1950. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York. For other illustrations see: Vernon E. Anderson, Paul R. Grim, and William T. Gruhn, *Principles and Practices of Secondary Education*. New York, The Ronald Press, 1951; Edward Olsen (and others), *School and Community Programs*. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1949.

tions were carried out at home wherever possible, and group representatives made a report of accomplishments.¹⁰

Grocery and Drygoods Store. As a part of its training of distribution and commercial workers, the commercial department of our school sets up a student shop each year at one end of the school cafeteria. The store is a complete retail grocery during the first semester and goods are furnished by local stores. During the second semester the store is fitted out as a boys' and girls' furnishing shop. Pupils visit local merchants, make selections from their stock, arrange to have goods shipped to the school, arrange the goods in the school store, make sales to the school children (and others who may come in to buy), make out saleslips and other sales records, keep books and take inventory. Goods are secured on consignment from the local stores, sold at the same price as in the stores from which they originated, and the sale price is turned back to the merchants. No competition with private enterprise exists in this project. All unsold goods are also returned.¹¹

Testing Recipes. Our home-economics girls felt that many of the recipes and suggestions in magazines and newspapers were probably good and many others probably were not. Several girls asked if they could form a group to carry on some testing and have a portion of the foods room as a little testing laboratory. The members of this group each undertook a small research problem in the investigation of recipes and food suggestions made in magazines. After each testing they judged the recipe on how well it turned out and reported to the class on their results. Those recipes which turned out most satisfactorily were placed in a file to be used for school and home cooking. Meeting together, this little experimental group attempted also to formulate criteria by which suggestions appearing in magazines could be evaluated on reading without the necessity of resorting to experiment in each instance.¹²

Weather Station. A weather station was established in our science class as an outgrowth of a unit on weather. Groups of pupils rotate in obtaining information from our weather station situated on top of the school building. Barometer, thermometer, and instruments for measuring wind velocity and precipitation are among our equipment. Regular reports on our observations are made to the weather bureau. A pupil who is both experienced and highly interested in observing weather phenomena is in charge of each pupil group.¹³

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 136.

¹² *Ibid.*, pp. 186-187.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 142.

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 238.

Italian-American Workshop. Our community has a large group of people of Italian background. As a move in the direction of better intercultural relations we held a workshop during May and June in which the members of our advanced high-school classes participated. Advanced students in Italian, students in the literature classes, the dramatics and music groups, the journalism group, teachers of these classes, and various laymen of the community, both of Italian background and others, all took part in the workshop.

We did a libretto for *Pinocchio* and set it to music from Italian operas. The music was produced and played four times. We translated Italian poetry into English and English poetry into Italian, and did the same with songs (both Italian and American), anecdotes, family incidents, and stories. Some of these were published in the Italian-language newspaper and some in the English-language newspapers of our community. Many of the songs were sung, with both Italian and English stanzas, by groups of pupils in assemblies, in public meetings in the town, and over the radio.¹⁴

These activities are good illustrations of what happens when teachers set out to vitalize the subject-centered curriculum. As the extent of direct experience which is introduced increases, the amount of emphasis upon a logical scope and sequence is bound to decrease, with the result that a given course may no longer appropriately be classified as subject-centered. There will also be a tendency for such courses to cut across subject lines since direct experiences do not normally take place within the confines of one field of knowledge. The last activity reported above drew upon literature, foreign languages, journalism, music, and might well have included social studies.

Within the subject-centered program it is not uncommon to find considerable emphasis upon work experience, field trips, community projects of various sorts, and upon a program of student activities, including student government. These emphases are for the most part experience-centered. What is needed in such schools is a careful rethinking of the total curricular program with a view of making direct experience an integral part of the program rather than a supplement to it.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 289.

Organization in Experience-Centered Programs. Aside from such areas as the fine and applied arts, vocational education, and agriculture, which are largely experience-centered, the core program is probably the best illustration of the experience-centered approach. The following chapter illustrates a number of these programs. In most of them, a more or less flexible organization of scope and sequence of problem areas and learning activities is set up. This organization is intended to serve something of the same purpose as does logical organization of a subject or field of knowledge—e.g. to provide for continuity in learning. Only in the extreme so-called child-centered curriculum does organization seem to be completely lacking and such programs are rare or non-existent in the high schools.

Reconciliation Is Possible and Desirable. From the foregoing discussion, it is clear that only in the most extreme programs is there a dichotomy between the subject-centered and the experience-centered approaches. It is therefore possible to conceive of a high-school curriculum that would combine the values of direct experience with those of systematic organization. This calls for a rather complete reorganization of existing programs. The next two chapters will deal with this problem.

SUMMARY

The subject-centered approach to learning is almost universally practiced in the American high school. It has been assumed that logically organized race experience is a satisfactory basis for organizing learning experience. It has persisted in spite of its psychological shortcomings, and its relative ineffectiveness in contributing to democratic purposes, because of the prestige of science, the endorsement of the colleges, the simplicity of the curriculum pattern which it provides, and the general approval of administrators, teachers, laymen, and students. Many of its weaknesses tend to be corrected by the breaking down of subject lines and the inclusion of much direct experience for the purpose of illuminating facts and principles. In contrast to the subject-centered curricular is the experience-centered approach. This involves a re-examination of the meaning and role of experience.

Direct experience has both an active and a passive aspect. On the one

hand, the individual is carrying on an activity. On the other, he is undergoing certain consequences as a result of interaction with the environment. Out of this interaction grows meaning, which is essential to experience. A curriculum based upon direct, personal experience is much more apt to be meaningful to the student than one based upon the logical organization of subject matter. Such a curriculum, however, must draw heavily upon logically organized subject matter if it is to be effective. Perhaps the so-called community schools are the best illustrations of the experience-centered curriculum. Programs of work experience, student activities, field trips, and the like, do much to supplement the subject-centered organization. When carried to their logical conclusion, they may become the center for curriculum organization. If experience-centered curriculums are to be successful, they must provide adequately for the organization of knowledge. The core curriculum, interpreted in terms of adolescent needs, is one of the leading types of organization for utilizing direct experience.

It is possible to reconcile these two concepts of curriculum organization by developing and applying a consistent theory of learning.

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CHAPTER VI

THE EMERGING DESIGN OF THE GENERAL-EDUCATION PROGRAM OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

Much of the current interest and activity in curriculum development, both in the high schools and the colleges, center in the area of general education. One reason for this emphasis is the continuous threat to our democracy by forces that are more likely to succeed if we neglect basic citizenship education.

A second reason is the realization that "specialism," however important it may be in our technological age, must not be allowed to permeate that part of the program which is directed primarily toward the development of the ideals, attitudes, understandings, and skills of common democratic citizenship. Nowhere is this point more clearly stated than in the Harvard Report, which has had great influence among educators. The Committee states that:

The impact of specialism has been felt not only in those phases of education which are necessarily and rightly specialistic, it has affected the whole structure of higher and even of secondary education. Teachers, themselves products of highly technical disciplines, tend to reproduce their knowledge in class. The result is that each subject, being taught by an expert, tends to be so presented as to attract potential experts. This complaint is perhaps more keenly felt in colleges and universities, which naturally look to scholarship. The undergraduate in a college receives his teaching from professors who, in their turn, have been trained in graduate

schools, and the latter are dominated by the ideal of specialization. Learning is now diversified and parcelled into a myriad of specialties.¹

The committee is probably correct in stating that the situation described is more applicable to the colleges than to the secondary schools, but it must be remembered that specialism—especially in the senior high schools—is the rule rather than the exception. Even the junior high schools have tended to follow the pattern of the senior high schools and colleges rather than that of the elementary schools.

A third reason is the trend toward a redefinition of the “fundamentals” of education. This has come about as the responsibility of the school has been widened from the mere transmission of the cultural heritage and the imparting of the basic skills of reading, writing, and computation, to the more important role of providing for the perpetuation and refinement of our way of life through active participation in living democratically.

The purpose of this chapter is to examine and evaluate the provisions which high schools make for common citizenship education. Since the discussion centers around general education, it is necessary at the outset to define and clarify this important concept.

THE MEANING OF GENERAL EDUCATION

In current practice, general education is contrasted sharply with vocational education. All of the activities of the school which are not planned specifically to develop vocational competence are regarded as general education. This interpretation overlooks the fact that the school may provide many specialized experiences for individuals or groups which have no direct relationship to vocational competence. Again, it is held that any course or activity which has a liberalizing element should be regarded as general education. This interpretation is confusing, because properly taught courses directed primarily toward developing vocational skills enhance the student's liberal outlook. Thus it becomes impossible in practice to make any very

¹*General Education in a Free Society*. Report of the Harvard Committee, p. 56. Copyright, 1945, by Harvard University Press, Cambridge.

helpful distinctions among the various aspects of the curriculum. Nevertheless the meaning of general education may be clarified by contrasting it with special-interest education, some of which may be vocational in purpose and organization.

A Re-Interpretation of General and Vocational Education.² Any re-interpretation of the respective roles of general and vocational education must take its point of departure from the purposes of education in a democracy. Perhaps no general agreement is possible on this important point, but probably most people would accept the following formulation as providing most of the essentials.

The purpose of *all* education in our democracy is to promote the optimal development of all individuals. This means that the school should foster those social arrangements, both within its own organization and in society, which are most likely to provide the conditions for continuous development of the individual. Within its own organization, then, it should provide for rich and varied experiences in all of the major aspects of living directed toward:

1. Helping the individual to meet his needs and to reconstruct and clarify his values.
2. Cultivating a sense of responsibility for behaving in such a way as to promote continuous development on the part of all citizens.
3. Helping the individual to become increasingly more competent as a contributor to the welfare of all, through working with his fellows on common problems and developing his capacities and interests in *specialized* fields.
4. Developing an understanding of the techniques and values of group action in solving human problems.
5. Developing a faith in intelligence as a means of solving individual and group problems.

If this general formulation is accepted, it follows that all of the fields of knowledge are to be utilized, not as ends in themselves, but for the purpose of achieving the aims set forth. If this were done

² In the discussion which follows, the writer has borrowed freely from his article entitled: "Bridging the Gap Between General and Vocational Education in the High School," *The Educational Forum*, XIII, 211-17 (January, 1949). Copyrighted, 1949, by Kappa Delta Pi.

effectively all education, whether labelled general or vocational, would possess a liberalizing quality.

An analysis of the above conception of the role of education indicates that there are two interrelated aspects of education which must be taken into account if the enterprise of optimal development of all is to be taken seriously. First, there are those ideals, attitudes, understandings, and skills that each citizen should possess if he is to plan, work, and act in concert with his fellows; and second, there are those *special* talents, interests, and needs which are unique, or shared only by groups. This specialized aspect of human development grows out of and plays back into the common life, to vitalize and enrich it.

From the standpoint of the organization of education it is desirable and necessary to distinguish between these two aspects of development because opportunities need to be provided for developing general citizenship (common ideals, attitudes, understandings, and skills) *and* for the cultivation of special abilities and interests of an avocational and vocational nature. While both of these aspects should be permeated with the same spirit, content and method differ significantly. We are justified then in calling the first aspect *general education*, and the second, *special-interest education*. When special interest-education is directed primarily toward developing competence in making a living, we are justified in calling it *vocational education*.

Non-Vocational Special-Interest Education. A separation (in organization) between general and special-interest education is justified at the point where special interests can no longer be effectively dealt with by groups that are organized primarily in terms of common concerns. For example, a group might be working on the common problem of housing in Columbus. Certain members of the group might be especially concerned with interior decoration and go far beyond the common activities of the group. If and when their concerns become so specialized that the framework set up for the study of the broad problem of housing is no longer adequate, the arts as a specialized field would be a better vehicle for the pursuit of this special interest. At this point, we should be justified in

calling the activities special or vocational education, depending upon the purposes of the individual or group. But individuals working in such a group are still citizens, and therefore such specialized education makes a contribution to competence in general citizenship.

Thus the modern school should provide wide opportunities for each student to meet his special needs and to cultivate and develop his special interests. Many of these special interests are in no sense vocational in character. A student may be interested in photography as a hobby with no intention of making it a vocation. He may pursue this interest to the point of becoming an expert, and it goes without saying that the school should help him to acquire continuously more complex insights and skills. In order to accomplish this the school must provide for specialized instruction and a specialized environment where he and his fellows with similar interests may achieve their purposes. True, the student may acquire some of the basic competencies in photography in the program of general education provided for *all*, but there is a point at which the interest may be more effectively developed in a specialized environment. Similar illustrations might be given in the fields of music, art, science, mathematics—in short in any of the major fields of knowledge or human endeavor. Let's call this aspect of the program non-vocational special-interest education.

Vocational Education. In addition to making provision for non-vocational special-interest education, the modern school recognizes its responsibility for providing for vocational competence. Courses in business education preparing directly for positions in the commercial world, in industrial education leading directly to employment in industry, courses in cosmetology designed to prepare beauty-shop operators are examples of the wide variety of vocational opportunities which the modern school is obligated to offer if it is to meet the specialized needs of students. Needless to say, this aspect of the program also makes an indirect contribution to general citizenship education.

To sum up, *General Education* is that part of the program which is *required of all students* at a given level on the grounds that it is

essential to the development of the common values, attitudes, understandings, and skills needed by all for common democratic citizenship. *Special-interest education* is that part of the program which is designed to meet the special needs and interests of individuals or groups. This part of the program provides both non-vocational and vocational opportunities.

General Education and Vocational Preparation. From the above analysis of the nature of general and special-interest education it should be clear that general educators must accept the responsibility for dealing with the students' special needs and interests *up to the point* at which a different organization of materials, specialized equipment, and specialized instruction are necessary. For example, the general education program will provide for art interests up to the point at which the student's interest becomes such as to require extended time in a studio or shop where instruction is directed toward developing special competencies. Special instruction in science or mathematics should begin at the point at which small group, or individualized instruction, directed toward helping the students acquire more proficiency and deeper insights than could be reasonably expected in non-specialized activities, is needed.

This interpretation gives general education a positive role with respect to providing the foundations for the development of vocational competence. This role is made clear by the following generalizations.

1. *General education should help the student discover and explore his capacities and interests including those which have direct vocational implications.* The carrying out of this program would require that the school provide a program of guidance and counseling in close relationship to the day-to-day activities of the classroom. As a matter of fact, much of it should be done by the classroom teacher through homeroom or core activities. This program should provide for the giving of interest and aptitude tests in connection with close observation by the teacher. Through personal counseling, the student should be led to examine critically his own capacities and interests. But to understand one's capacities and interests is not enough. Opportunities must be given for exploration. This may be

done effectively through broad comprehensive units of work which are so organized as to provide activities in which *all* participate, and also activities designed to elicit the special contributions of small groups or individuals. Units dealing with community study, Problems of the Consumer, Living in the Home, Recreation and Hobbies, Communication, Transportation, and the like, offer rich opportunities for the discovery and exploration of special interests. Certainly an important aspect of such a program ought to be work experience both in and out of the school.

2. *General education should provide opportunities for developing understandings of the way the work of the world is carried on, and appreciation of the contributions of the major vocations to human welfare.* Any program which succeeds only in helping the student to discover his own possibilities would be narrow and incomplete. One of the persistent demands of today is for a better understanding and appreciation of the contributions of various occupational groups to democratic living. Much of the present-day disunity in the economic field is due to the failure of groups to understand each other. It requires a nationwide strike to impress upon us our dependence upon the work of a relatively small group of people. Unfortunately even teachers have felt called upon to strike in order to bring home to the public the significance of good schools in promoting democratic living. It takes a major depression to convince us that something is wrong with the doctrine of free enterprise. Obviously the citizen in our democracy needs a high degree of literacy in the area of economic life and it is the business of general education to provide it.

3. *General education should provide guidance to the individual in the selection of a vocation.* This statement flows naturally from the generalizations stated above. One of the persistent needs of youth is to achieve an independent status in economic life. Much of the frustration which is prevalent among youth is due to insecurity and uncertainty. They are gradually achieving biological and emotional maturity. Dependence upon the home is shifting gradually to self-dependence. The choice of a vocation becomes crucial. The conventional school does a fairly good job of guiding youth who

expect to enter college as a step toward a professional career. But the vast majority of youth will enter an occupation before or at the close of their high-school careers. To this group, the school has a distinct responsibility which is seldom fully met. Certainly no one would claim that the answer lies in shunting them into narrow vocational training at an early age, where they are cut off from their more "fortunate" fellows and from the broad citizenship training needed by all. General education, accompanied by careful guidance, would seem to be the only satisfactory course to pursue.

GENERAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS—AN OVERVIEW

A casual examination of almost any high-school program will reveal the provisions that are being made for general education (courses required of all) and special-interest education (controlled or free electives). For example, in the ninth grade a school is likely to require one unit each of English, social studies, and physical education and permit election with guidance from a long list of courses such as algebra, general mathematics, general science, home arts, woodworking, mechanics, printing, agriculture, speech and dramatics, Spanish, clothing, foods, business practice, and typing. Obviously some of these electives, e.g., Spanish, speech and dramatics, and science, are non-vocational in character and organization though they may have vocational implications, while others, e.g., printing, and agriculture are likely to be slanted toward developing vocational competencies.

At higher grade levels the distinctions indicated above are likely to become clearer and vocational courses are provided in fields such as agriculture, industrial and commercial education.

The important point to consider in connection with the present discussion is that those who formulate such programs believe that certain courses or experiences are so necessary that they must be required of *all*, while others are thought to be valuable only to certain students or groups of students.

In considering curriculum-development programs designed to provide for common citizenship education, we are again confronted with the problem of terminology. In terms of our discussion up to

this point, it is safe to conclude that such programs fall within the area of general education, although most of the innovating practices do not include the *entire* area of general education. For example, a school may utilize a broad-problems as well as a separate-subject approach in setting up the program to be required of all. This point will be illustrated as the various programs are presented.

In spite of the fact that the term, core or "core program" has been interpreted in many different ways, it seems helpful to use it as the basis for discussing the existing and emerging programs in the area of general education. It is hoped that the confusion and ambiguity which surround it will be minimized by defining and illustrating different types of core program.

There seems to be one common element in programs that are referred to as the core. *The term is applied in some fashion to all or part of the total curriculum which is required of all students at a given level. In other words, the core is used to designate all or part of the program of general education.* This important concept is utilized as the point of departure in presenting the various types of organization.

The various interpretations,³ presented in the order of their deviation from conventional curriculum organization, are as follows:

1. The core consists of a number of logically organized subjects or fields of knowledge each one of which is taught independently.

Example: English, world history, and general science are required at the ninth grade level. They are taught without any organized attempt to show relationships.

2. The core consists of a number of logically organized subjects or fields of knowledge, some or all of which are correlated.

Example: American history and American literature are required of all twelfth-grade students. When the history teacher is dealing with the Civil War, the English teacher introduces the literature of that period.

³ This analysis of the various types of core programs has been utilized in a number of other publications by the author. *How to Develop a Core Program in the High School* (mimeographed). Columbus, Ohio, Ohio State University Press, 1947. It is also the basis for the author's contribution (Chapter VII) in the *Fifty-Second Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education Part I, entitled *Adapting the Secondary School Program to the Needs of Youth*. Chicago, The University of Chicago Press, 1953.

3. The core consists of broad problems, units of work, or unifying themes which are chosen because they afford the means of teaching effectively the basic content of certain subjects or fields of knowledge. These subjects or fields retain their identity, but the content is selected and taught with special reference to the unit, theme, or problem.

Example: Living in the Community is selected as a unit of work for the tenth grade. The unit is then organized in terms of science, art, social studies, etc., and taught by specialists, or by one teacher.

4. The core consists of a number of subjects or fields of knowledge which are unified or fused. Usually one subject or field (e.g., history) serves as the unifying center.

Example: American history and American literature in the eleventh grade are unified through a series of epochs such as *The Colonial Period*, *The Westward Movement*, *The Industrial Revolution*. The unification may be extended to include other fields such as the arts, science, and mathematics.

5. The core consists of learning experiences selected from broad pre-planned problem areas, in terms of the psychobiological and societal needs, problems, and interests of students.

Example. A Unit on *Healthful Living*, in the twelfth grade, stresses the health problems of the group, and how they are related to the immediate and wider community. The unit is teacher-student planned, but in terms of a basic curricular structure.

6. The core consists of broad teacher-student planned units of work, or activities, in terms of needs, problems, or interests as perceived by the group. No basic curriculum structure is set up.

Example An eighth grade group, under guidance of the teacher, decides to landscape the school grounds. The activity meets criteria decided upon by the group.¹⁴

It will be noted that the six types of organization presented above represent a continuum, beginning with conventional subject-centered programs (Type I) and ending with an extreme student-centered problems program (Type VI). In actual practice, there is some blending of the different types. This is especially true in schools providing administratively for a double or triple period and extending freedom to teachers to experiment with new types of curricular structure.

¹⁴ See the somewhat similar analysis made by L. Thomas Hopkins, *Integration: Its Meaning and Application* Ch. XII. New York, D. Appleton-Century Company, 1937.

ANALYSIS OF GENERAL-EDUCATION PROGRAMS

All programs designed to meet the common needs and problems of adolescents may be roughly classified in terms of the different types of core programs described above. The sections which follow are devoted to an elaboration of this generalization.

Type One Core, Based Upon Separate Subjects, Required of All Students at a Given Level. Most high schools in the United States provide for general education by requiring students to "take" a number of conventional courses. Out of sixteen "units" required for graduation, approximately one-half are required of all. Usually such units include at least three in English, three in social studies, and one or more in health and physical education. These subjects are taught in separate periods, and in the larger high schools by separate teachers who hold a teaching certificate in the subject taught. The content of the courses is determined to a large extent by the adopted textbook with supplementary material added by the resourceful teacher. Sometimes the teachers of a given subject plan the content together, but out of relationship to other subjects. In other words, each subject is self-contained. The organization described, according to a study of the United States Office of Education⁵ characterizes the programs of most of the high schools of the nation.

In this study the Office of Education asked high school principals to report as *core*, any courses that involved a combination of two or more class periods from subjects that would ordinarily be taught separately. As is pointed out in the bulletin:

This restriction excludes one popular type of course which many people refer to as *core*—the course which considers personal-social problems of youth but which meets for but one period, or one period and homeroom.

A further restriction imposed on the inclusion of courses as *cores* was that they must cut across large areas of the curriculum. That is, a double period class in language arts or a double period in social studies was not

⁵ Grace S. Wright, *Core Curriculum in Public High Schools. An Inquiry into Practices*, 1949. Bulletin 1950, No. 6. Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1950.

counted. . . . In brief, then, *the cores represented by the schools included in this study meet for at least six periods a week and combine subjects which cut across major areas of the curriculum.*⁶

Even with this liberal, if somewhat ambiguous definition of the core, it was estimated that only 833 schools, or 3.5 per cent of the public high schools of the United States, reported courses meeting the definition. From these data, we infer that 96.5 per cent of the public high schools organize their programs for meeting the common needs of adolescents in terms of required separate subjects.

What is the justification for calling this type of organization a core? The answer is quite simple. These required courses are considered to be the heart or center of the program and therefore indispensable in the development of common democratic citizenship. It is fairly common practice for high-school personnel to refer to this part of their program as the "core of the curriculum." In the colleges, this use of the term is even more widespread. No less an authority than the Harvard Committee⁷ refers to a "continuing core for all" made up of required subjects in the humanities, the social sciences, the sciences, and mathematics.

For purposes of clarification, then, it seems justifiable to refer to such a program as a Type-One Core, for when we say that a school has a Type-One Core we mean only that within its total curricular offerings, a number of *separate* subjects are required of all.

EVALUATION. The subject-centered curriculum was evaluated in Chapter V. There it was pointed out that systematic organizations of knowledge are essential to the effective interpretation of experience, are easily understood and changed, and have enormous prestige among the colleges. It was also suggested that a curriculum made up of systematic subjects met with the favor of students, parents, and teachers. In dealing with specialized intellectual interests of students, without a doubt, subjects, as such, have a definite place.

In the area of general education, the situation is quite different.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 3. (Italics not in the original)

⁷ *Op. cit.*, p. 99.

Here the emphasis is upon meeting the *common* needs, problems, and interests of students for effective living in our society, and, as will be shown, such needs, problems, and interests cannot be categorized in terms of systematic organizations of knowledge without doing violence to the concept of dynamic experience and learning. If the schools are to play a part in the survival and refinement of our democratic way of life, they need to give serious thought to the kind and quality of experience which are provided for youth.

Type-Two Core, Based Upon the Informal Correlation of Some or All Subjects Required of All Students at a Given Grade Level. As teachers seek to make their subjects more meaningful, one of the simplest, and hence least disrupting plans, is for them to try to show how their particular subject relates to others. This procedure gained impetus under the influence of the Herbartian psychology which placed great stress upon the strengthening of "apperceptive masses" through the combination of related ideas. Since the two subjects most commonly required of all students are English and social studies, these areas are most frequently included in such plans. For example, if the social studies teacher is dealing with the Industrial Revolution, the English teacher might suggest the reading of Steinbeck's *Grapes of Wrath* or *Cannery Row*, or any of the numerous novels dealing with the problem of the impact of technology upon economic life.

EVALUATION. This plan commends itself to teachers because it does not disrupt the time schedule or the organization of the curriculum. It's a simple way of recognizing the relatedness of subject matter. However, since it recognizes the need for showing such relationships, and provides for some modification of the program, it seems justifiable to give it a place among the various plans to make the subject-centered organization of general education more functional.

Type-Three Core, Based Upon the Formal Correlation of Two or More Required Subjects. It is easy to see how a simple plan of informal correlation in which two teachers of different subjects try to relate their work might develop into a more formal and systematic plan based upon the same principle.

In the early years of the *Eight-Year Study*, a number of schools experimented with such a scheme. The usual practice was for the group of teachers of the required subjects of a given grade to get together and agree that for a certain period, say six or eight weeks, all would emphasize a certain "overarching theme," such as *Living in the Home*. For example, the mathematics teacher might modify his materials to include home budgeting; the social-studies teacher might deal with the role of the family in our society; the science teacher might deal with selection and care of home appliances; and the English teacher might deal with literature related to home living.

While very few plans of this type are reported in the literature, it is probable that quite a number of schools have made attempts at formal correlation. Wright reports⁸ that a number of the 519 schools claiming to have core programs, which were included in her study, practice some form of correlation. Schools were asked to check their use of the practice described in the following statement: "Each subject retains its identity in the core, that is, subjects combined in the core are correlated but not fused. For example, the teaching of American literature may be correlated with the teaching of American History. The group may be taught both subjects by one teacher or each subject by the appropriate subject teacher." Thirty-one per cent reported that this plan was used exclusively, 13 per cent in some classes, and 8 per cent in most classes.

One of the best illustrations of formal correlation is reported by Pierce.⁹

The faculty of Wells High School chose the following "centers of interest" for grade 9A: Conservation of Cultural and Material Resources, Our Changing Methods of Production and Consumption, Government and Other Social Agencies in Cooperative Living, and Work in Relation to Daily Living. The following is the initial break-

⁸ Grace Wright, "Core Curriculum Why and What?" *School Life*, XXXIV, 71 ff (February, 1952). See also Grace Wright, *Core Curriculum Development Problems and Practices*, Bulletin 1952, No. 5. Washington, Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, 1952, p. 8.

⁹ Paul Pierce, *Developing a High-School Curriculum*, p. 47 ff. Copyright, 1942, by The American Book Company, New York.

down of one of the centers, in terms of "unit loads . . . for the three major core fields."

SOCIAL STUDIES

How Conservation Improves Daily Living

Learning objective: To make effective use of our possessions and avoid needless waste.

Unit Elements: Why we should avoid waste, Obtaining and Using Capital, Need for Conserving Forests, Conserving Fuels and Other Natural Resources, Services of the Civilian Conservation Corps, Eliminating Waste in Child Labor, Conservation through Minimum Hours and Wage Provisions, Eliminating Waste through Unemployment, Accident and Retirement Compensation, Conservation of School Supplies and Property.

ENGLISH ARTS

Conservation in the Development of American Civilization

Learning objective: To improve reading and expressional skills through the study of conservation needs in our country's development.

Unit Elements: How the pioneers used the forests—Girdling, The destruction of buffalo and other game, Devastation of Forests for timber and turpentine, Waste in past and present mining, Oil and other fuels in our country's growth, How Americans have made use of their land, beginnings and growth of conservation movements.

SCIENCE

How Science Aids in Conserving Natural Resources

Learning objective: To understand and appreciate better how science aids in preserving our natural and material possessions.

Unit Elements. How science aids in conserving soils, Science and the protection of vegetation and livestock, Conserving the energy of air, water, and sunlight, How science is utilized to conserve our fuel supply.¹⁰

The general curriculum design at Wells which finally emerged retained the subject fields as the basis for the program, but these fields were related—or correlated—through the use of the following functions of living: (1) Ethical and spiritual character, (2) Work, (3) Leisure, (4) Thought and its communication, (5) Health, (6) Social relationships, and (7) Economic Consciousness.¹¹

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 47-48.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 134.

EVALUATION. Obviously this type of program attempts to ride "the subject-matter horse" and "direct-experience horse" abreast. It never loses sight of the fact that systems of subject matter are to be taught, but it seeks to make these subjects more functional by showing how they are interrelated, and how various elements of them aid in solving life problems. This is a long step away from the compartmentalized program described as a *Type-One Core*, but it does not represent a clean break with the subject-centered organization of general education.

Type-Four Core Based Upon the Fusion of Two or More of the Required Subjects. The practice of fusing elements within a field of knowledge has been going on for a long time. History, economics, sociology, anthropology are often combined in a course and labelled social studies, or social living. Physics, chemistry, biology, nature study, etc., are commonly fused into general science courses taught in the junior high school, and sometimes into courses known as applied science or social science in the senior high school. General language courses frequently combine the basic elements of Latin and several modern languages.

The fusion or combination of subjects representing different fields of knowledge is less common, but the principle involved is the same. In the study by Wright referred to above, this practice is described as follows: "Subject lines are broken down. Subjects included in the core are fused into a unified whole around a central theme. E.g. 'Our American Heritage' may be the central theme of a core unifying American history or literature, and possibly art and music."¹²

Fifteen per cent of the 519 schools reporting core programs stated that they used this type exclusively, 20 per cent in some classes, and 7 per cent in most classes.

Most of the literature refers to such core programs as *Unified Studies*, a not inappropriate designation, when it is noted that the subjects usually taught separately are unified into a larger whole.

A simple illustration of the *Type-Four Core* is the fusion of American history and American literature in the eleventh grade. These

¹² Grace S. Wright, "Core Curriculum Why and What?" *School Life*, XXXIV. (February, 1952) p 71.

fields are not taught separately but are brought together in a larger block of time—usually two consecutive periods. A favorite way of organizing the combined content is to divide the course into a series of epochs such as the Colonial Period, the Westward Movement, the Industrial Revolution, etc. The literature dealing with a particular epoch is studied along with the economic, social, and political aspects. English composition and spelling are taught functionally as tools for developing the basic understanding of the epoch. Some schools extend the block of time to three periods to provide sufficient time to bring in art, music, science, or other required subjects. A similar organization may be built around world history. The best example of such a program was that of the Horace Mann School of Teachers College, Columbia University.¹³

The course was organized around the general theme of the progress of man through history. The program began in the seventh grade and extended through the twelfth. Successive culture epochs were studied and all aspects of a given period were brought in as needed to understand that particular epoch of history. Approximately one-half of the school day was given over to this program. Most of the teaching was done by a “coordinating” teacher, who was free, however, to call upon specialists in the various subject fields for assistance. The coordinating teacher usually represented the fields of English and the social sciences.

The curriculum design of the various grades was as follows:

1. *The Story of Man Through the Ages*

Grade 7. From the beginning through the ancient period

Grade 8. To the discovery of America

Grade 9. From the discovery of America to life in the modern world

2. *Modern Civilizations and Cultures*

Grade 10. American civilization and culture

Grade 11. Other civilizations and cultures (e.g., Russia, Germany, China, Great Britain, France)

Grade 12. Modern Problems and Issues in America

¹³ *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story*. Adventures in American Education, Vol. V. New York, Harper and Brothers, 1943, pp. 406–428, *passim*.

The critics of the Culture Epoch approach to general education claim that the scheme devotes entirely too much time to the past and that it is far removed from the needs of youth. On the other hand, its proponents defend it on the ground that the present and the past are interwoven and that the needs of the students are met as they compare present-day problems of living with those of the past.

Undoubtedly it has the advantage of providing a ready-made sequence, i.e., chronology, and provides the opportunity of bringing in subject matter from all of the fields of knowledge.

A glance at the Horace Mann program indicates that as the student moves to the upper grade levels, particularly the eleventh and twelfth, the orientation shifts to modern cultures and contemporary problems. There is a tendency for schools using this type of core to abandon the culture epoch approach and move to a contemporary problems orientation. Thus a unit on *Communication* might be the means of unifying language arts, social studies and science. A unit on *Housing* could easily be the vehicle for teaching basic language skills, the fine and applied arts, social studies, and science. Current practice in the unified-studies program follows both the Culture Epoch and the Contemporary-Problems Approach. Broad comprehensive units are developed around areas or problems of living at certain grade levels while at others, ostensibly to meet the requirement of a year in American history, the units might be developed around the usual chronological periods of American history.

This type of core usually utilizes a large block of time (two or three periods) in the daily schedule and is taught in most schools by one broadly trained teacher, who may or may not draw upon subject-matter specialists to deal with the more technical phases of the unit or theme. Usually this teacher also serves as the homeroom teacher of a given group of students.

EVALUATION. An important point to keep in mind in appraising the *Type-Four Core* is that it does not abandon the teaching of the material usually included in the several required subjects. It simply unifies these materials in terms of certain established unifying concepts in order to make them more functional in the life of the

learner. If the unifying themes are mere chronological periods in history, the gain is only that the different aspects of a given culture period are not fragmented—and perhaps this fact is sufficient to justify the program. If the unifying themes are real problems of living in America today, the gain may be very great, even though such themes are largely vehicles for teaching conventional subject matter.

Type-Five Core, Based Upon Common Needs, Problems, and Interests of Adolescents Selected from Established Problem Areas. Up to this point in the discussion, plans have been described that do not break sharply with the subject-centered program for general education. It will be noted that the *Type-Four Core* rejects the separate subject concept which dominates *Types One, Two, and Three*, but it does not abandon the notion that the major content for general education is to be found in the material usually taught through separate subjects.

The *Type-Five Core*, though it draws heavily upon organized subject matter, finds its basic orientation in the common needs, problems, and interests of the learner.

The program is based upon the conviction that the high school should make a direct attack upon the common problems which youth in our society face and that it should help them to identify and meet their common needs. Subject matter from all pertinent fields of knowledge is drawn upon to illuminate, clarify, and provide data for solving persistent common problems of living. No preconceived bodies of subject matter are set up to be “covered.” If particular subject matter is needed to achieve the goals set up, it will come in—otherwise it is left out. From one-third to two-thirds of the school day is set aside for this part of the curriculum. The remaining time is devoted to instruction in special interest areas (see Chapter VII) elected by students on the basis of their particular interests and needs. In practice, mathematics and physical education are required of all students in addition to the two- or three-hour block of time devoted to broad comprehensive common problems of living. Studies of the possible contributions of these two areas to the core are now under way. There is much evidence to support the aban-

donment of mathematics as a separate required subject, if the program is wisely developed.¹⁴

In the Wright study quoted previously in this chapter schools were requested to respond to the following statement.

Subjects are brought in only as needed. The core consists of a number of broad preplanned problems usually related to a central theme. Problems are based on predetermined areas of pupil needs, both immediate felt needs and needs as society sees them. For example, under the theme, Personal-Social Relations, there may be such problems as school citizenship, understanding myself, getting along with others, how to work effectively in group situations. Members of the class may or may not have a choice from among several problems, they will however, choose activities within the problems.¹⁵

Approximately 11 per cent of the 541 schools reporting a core program stated that they used this type exclusively, 17 per cent in some classes, and 8 per cent in most classes. Upon the basis of the estimated total of 833 schools having a core program, this would mean that less than 100 high schools in the United States have adopted such a program, and this figure is probably optimistic.

There have been many formulations of problem areas for this type of curriculum design. Perhaps the following analysis prepared by the author ¹⁶ will serve as an acceptable illustration:

1. *Orientation to the School.* Problems relating to the school program and the role of the pupil in understanding, interpreting, and improving it, understanding and practicing democratic values in school relationships.
2. *Home and Family Life.* Problems relating to the role of the family and the relationships among members of the family.
3. *Community Life.* Problems relating to the structure and function-

¹⁴ See Elsie June Stalzer, *Contributions of Mathematics to a Proposal for Reorganizing General Education in Secondary Schools on the Basis of a Core Program*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Columbus, The Ohio State University, 1952.

¹⁵ Wright, "Core Curriculum Why and What?" *Op. cit.*, p. 71.

¹⁶ Harold Alberty, "A Proposal for Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum on the Basis of a Core Program," *Progressive Education*, XXVIII, pp. 57-61 (November, 1950.)

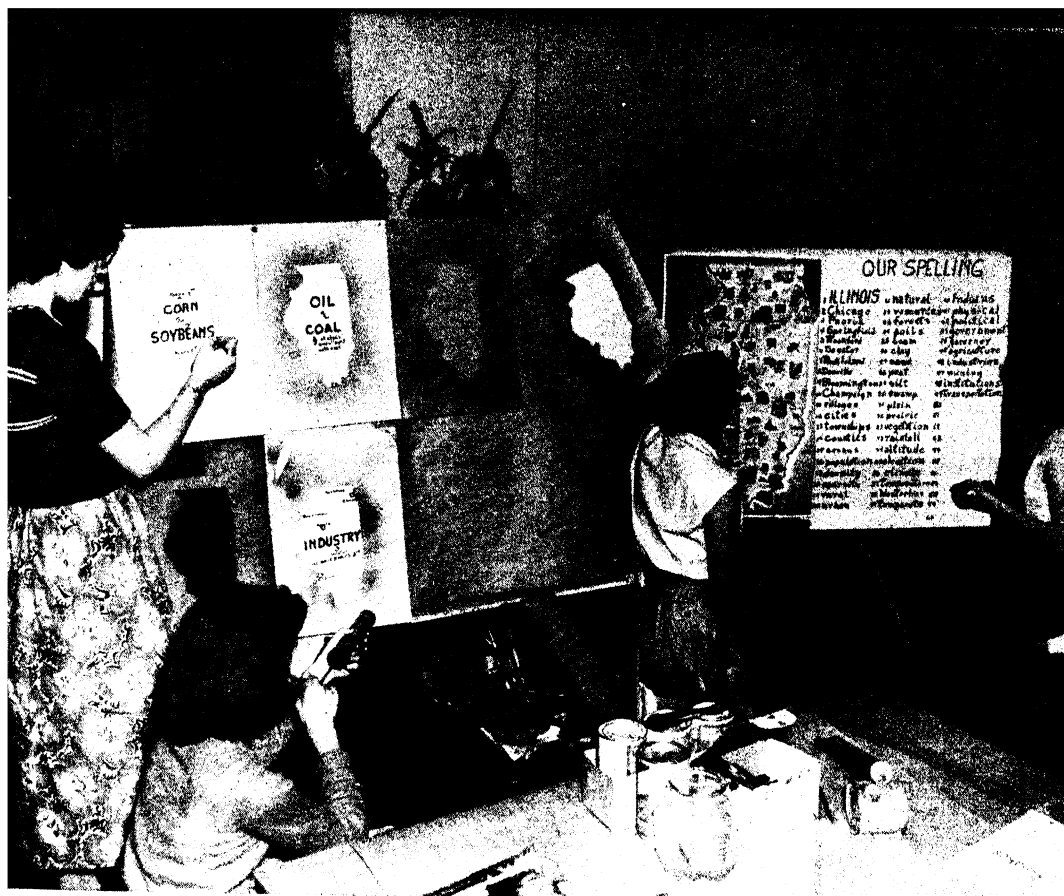


Fig. 7. Eighth-Grade Students at Trewyn Junior High School, Peoria, Illinois, at Work on a Unit "Our Political and Physical Surroundings in Illinois." *Courtesy Peoria, Illinois, Public Schools.*



Fig. 8. Seventh-Grade Students at Trewyn Junior High School, Peoria, Illinois, at Work on a Marionette Show in Connection with the Unit: "How Our Explorers Lived." This Unit in the Fundamental Learnings Course Utilizes Language Arts, Arts and Crafts, Industrial Arts, Mathematics, History, Home Living, and Dramatics. *Courtesy Peoria, Illinois, Public Schools.*

ing of communities and the role of the individual in understanding, interpreting, and improving community living.

4. *Contemporary Cultures.* Problems relating to the understanding of different world cultures, and their potential contributions to civilization.
5. *Contemporary America Among the Nations.* Problems of determining the contributions of America to World Unity; understanding the American tradition; reconciling national sovereignty with a world order; defining the role of the American citizen in developing world understanding.
6. *Competing Political, Social and Economic Ideologies.* Problems of orienting the individual to conflicting ideologies, on the local, national and world scene; modes of reconciling or reducing conflict.
7. *Personal Value Systems.* Problems involving the way people acquire beliefs and values, and how they are woven into systems of value that direct behavior; role of critical thinking in making value judgments, democratic values and attitudes.
8. *World Religions.* Problems pertaining to an understanding of the major religions of the contemporary world and their influence on civilization; relationships of personal, moral, and ethical beliefs to religion; the impact of modern science upon religion.
9. *Communication.* Problems relating to the various modes of communication, their influence upon human welfare; developing skill in communication.
10. *Resource Development, Conservation, and Use.* Problems pertaining to the conservation and use of human and natural resources in relation to the enhancement of human personality at all levels; developing consumer literacy.
11. *Human Relations.* Problems pertaining to the factors which promote or defeat cooperation among individuals and groups; understanding the techniques of group action; securing unity through diversity, implications for dealing with racial and ethnic groups.
12. *Physical and Mental Health.* Problems bearing upon healthful living on the part of the individual, community, and world; ways of securing and maintaining good physical and mental health at all levels.
13. *Planning.* Problems relating to the need for, and techniques of planning on the part of individuals, communities, nations, and the world.
14. *Science and Technology.* Problems bearing upon the use of science and technology in promoting or destroying civilization; the lag between technological "know-how," and its application to the solution of human problems.

15. *Vocational Orientation.* Problems pertaining to the understanding of the way the work of the world is carried on; determining the individual's capacities in relation to particular occupations; provision for first-hand experiences in work.
16. *Hobbies and Interests.* Problems pertaining to the role of hobbies and other interests in mental health; developing skills in hobbies and other interests; developing appreciation of art, music, and literature.
17. *Public Opinion.* Problems relating to the influence of various factors upon the molding of public opinion; propaganda analysis; role of emotional appeals; public opinion and international cooperation; use of critical thinking in forming public opinion.
18. *Education.* Problems pertaining to the role of education; securing an education; the maintenance, extension and improvement of educational agencies at all levels; education and international understanding.
19. *War and Peace.* Problems pertaining to the causes of war and how they may be eliminated; understanding the relationship between scientific advance and security; understanding and appraising organizations and agencies for promoting world peace, examining and trying to reconcile the conflicts between national sovereignty and a world order.¹⁷

The problem areas here stated without any implications for sequence provide the scope of the program design for meeting the common needs of adolescents.¹⁸ In practice, the definition and scope of the problem areas would be determined on the basis of the formulation of common needs accepted or worked out by the faculty. The sequence would also be determined by the faculty. It is proposed that a block of two or three periods per day be set aside for this aspect of the program. In most of the schools using this type of core, units of work from these areas are to be selected, planned, and carried out cooperatively by the teacher and students. The group identifies the particular problems upon which it wishes to work,

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 60-61.

¹⁸ For similar formulations see the following: Prudence Bostwick and Charles Reid, *A Functional High-School Program*. New York, Hinds, Hayden and Eldridge, Inc., 1947; William Van Til, *A Social Living Curriculum for Post-War Secondary Education*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Columbus, Ohio, The Ohio State University, 1946; Lucile Lurry, *The Contribution of Home Economics to Selected Problem Areas in the Core Curriculum of the Secondary School*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Columbus, Ohio, The Ohio State University, 1949.

draws upon all available resources, and organizes itself for an intensive study of these problems. When help is needed, specialists on the faculty are brought in. For example, in a unit on Home and Family Life in the eighth grade, the home economist might be brought in to help identify family problems; the science teacher might help in a study of technological advances in the home, problems of health might require the assistance of the teacher of health and physical education or the school doctor or nurse. The teachers of fine and industrial arts might be utilized in connection with house planning and interior decoration, the mathematics teacher might help in problems of family budgeting.

In addition to the block of time devoted to the core or general education, students would be enrolled in elective courses in the fine and practical arts, music, foreign languages, advanced science, and mathematics, vocational subjects, and other special interest areas.

The problem of determining the sequence of units or learning activities in a general-education program, based upon common needs and problems of adolescents, presents difficulties not encountered in the subject-centered program. In such programs, sequence is usually determined by the logic of the subject or field, which takes precedence over the immediate felt needs of the students. The assumption is that common needs are met as students secure mastery of the subject or field of knowledge.

Schools that have developed programs based upon preplanned problem areas have solved the problem of sequence in several ways, none of which is entirely satisfactory.

In Harford County, Maryland, problem areas were allocated by the faculty to the various grade levels, resource units were developed in each area, with suggested learning activities based upon the maturational levels of the students. Dorothy Mudd explains the plan as follows:

With the arrival of the millennium, when master teachers people ideal classrooms in school plants with unlimited resources, in communities where the best efforts of all laymen and all the professional staff are cooperatively addressed to the problem of providing the best educational experience for all children, we shall undoubtedly abandon many of the

curricular methods which serve us now. While we await that golden age, we face realistically the problems which confront us. To meet one which stems from the dual cause of (1) insecurity on the part of many teachers conditioned by preservice and inservice training to expect a fixed curricular pattern, and (2) the need for many and varied instructional materials which demands some preplanning as to areas in which classes will work, we have dared to propose the following sequence of resource units as a possible pattern:

Grade Seven

1. Living in the Junior High School
Exploring My Educational Opportunities
2. Knowing Harford County
3. Discovering Maryland as America in Miniature
4. The Finest Machine
Keeping Physically Fit
Preventing Accident and Disease

Grade Eight

1. Relating Our Land and Resources to Our History
2. Conservation of Our National Resources
3. Finding Fellowship with Americans North and South
4. Our Physical Environment Shaping Our Living

Grade Nine

1. Appreciating the Contributions of Other Cultures
2. Our Shrinking World
3. How Science and Technology Affect Our Lives
4. Finding One's Place in the World of Work

It will be readily apparent that we are thinking in terms of an **expanding** community concept developing out of learning experiences in **this** sequence. We do not propose this as an ideal pattern—not even as a desirable one. It is, as we indicated above, our attempt to meet a specific problem which confronts us.¹⁹

This extended quotation indicates that practical rather than psychological considerations played the major role in determining the scope and sequence of the problem areas.

Another illustration of a fixed sequence program is that of the

¹⁹ Dorothy Mudd, *A Core Program Grows*, pp 23-24 Copyright, 1949, by the Board of Education of Harford County, Bel Air, Md.

New School of the Evanston Township High School. This program probably approximates what we have defined as a Type-Five Core, although some of the areas set forth might be more accurately described as Type Four—or Unified Studies. The areas utilize a two-period block of time and are developed in the following sequence:

Freshman Core—Orientation:

1. Finding Myself in School and Community
2. Choosing a Vocation
3. New Horizons Through Literature
4. The United States and World Affairs

Sophomore Core—World Mindedness:

1. The Atomic Age
2. War and Peace
3. The Development of Law and Justice
4. Theaters, Motion Pictures, Radio, and Television

Junior Core—American Life and Culture.

1. The American People
2. America in Literature
3. The United States Government, Its Structure and Development
4. The Development of the American Economic System

Senior Core—Life Adjustment.

1. College and Careers
2. Our Literary Heritage
3. Consumer Education
4. Marriage and Family Living ²⁰

Garrett County, Maryland,²¹ is also an example of a fixed scope and sequence design for general education. These problem areas evolved from the basic philosophy developed by the teachers and an analysis of the basic needs of the students. Each problem area is im-

²⁰ Reported by Ellsworth Tompkins, *The Activity Period in Public High Schools*, Bulletin 1951, No. 19, Washington, Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, 1951, p. 4.

²¹ For a brief description of this program, see C. B. Mendenhall and K. J. Arisman, *Secondary Education*. New York, William Sloan Associates, 1951, pp. 267-271.

plemented by a resource unit developed by a group of teachers. Learning units, based on these resource units, are planned cooperatively by teachers and students. In addition to the core, students are required to take mathematics in the seventh and eighth grades and physical education at all levels. The program utilizes three periods per day in the junior high schools and two periods per day in the senior high schools. The problem areas arranged in terms of scope and sequence, are as follows:

GARRETT COUNTY MARYLAND CORE PROGRAM 1950-51

7th Grade

School Living
Health and Safety
Transportation
Communicating Ideas

8th Grade

Knowing Garrett County
Natural Environment
Leisure and Recreation

9th Grade

Making a Living
Establishing Beliefs
Consumer Problems
Personal Development
American Heritage

10th Grade

Intercultural Relations
Living in One World
Leisure and Recreation
Communicating Ideas

11th Grade

American Heritage
Personal Development
Establishing Beliefs

12th Grade

Family Living
Role of Education
Making a Living
Health and Safety
Consumer Problems
Technology of Living

It must not be concluded that the programs set forth are completely fixed, leaving no place for teacher-student planning. Within limits teachers are free to plan with students in terms of the particular problems of the group. The resource units which have been developed are intended to be suggestive rather than prescriptive. They contain many more suggestions for learning activities than could possibly be carried out by any one group. While it would be difficult to defend psychologically the placement at the particular grade level of most of the problem areas, it must at the same time be admitted that a psychologically sound learning unit might be developed from any one of them at the grade level specified.

A more flexible program design has been developed in the Ohio State University School. This program is based upon the philosophy of the school and the needs, problems, and interests of students at the various maturational levels.²²

The general design of the program follows:

THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY SCHOOL CORE PROGRAM

Problem Areas—Grades Seven, Eight, and Nine

1. Understanding My Body
2. Beliefs and Superstitions
3. Hobbies
4. Managing My Personal Affairs
5. Sports and Recreation
6. Living in University School
7. Living in the Home
8. Living in the Neighborhood
9. Personality and Appearance
10. Earning a Living
11. Housing
12. Natural Resources
13. Community Agencies and Services
 - Recreation
 - Protection
 - Government
 - Education
 - Welfare
14. Communication
15. Living in Columbus
16. Living in Ohio
17. Living in Another Country or Other Countries

Problem Areas—Grades Ten, Eleven, and Twelve

1. School Living
2. Problems of Healthful Living

²² See, *The Philosophy and Purposes of the University School*. Columbus, The Ohio State University, 1948; Norma Albright, et al. *An Inventory Study of the Personal and General Social Problems of 256 Students in Grades Seven to Twelve, Inclusive*. Columbus, The Ohio State University, 1940; *How Children Develop*. A Report by the Faculty of the University School, Columbus, The Ohio State University, 1946.

3. Problems of Living in an Urban Society
4. Problems of the Family as a Basic Social Unit
5. The Development of the American Scene

Eleventh Grade

1. School Living
2. Problems of Living in the Atomic Age
3. The Problems of Establishing Beliefs
4. The Problems of Making a Living (Exploring Vocations)
5. Current World Problems
6. Driver, Pedestrian Education

Twelfth Grade

1. School Living
2. Problems of Producer-Consumer Economics
3. Implications of Scientific Advancement
4. Major Conflicting Ideologies
5. The Bases for Determining Values by Which to Live
6. The American Heritage

These problem areas are suggestive only. There is perhaps a presumption that learning units be selected cooperatively by teachers and student groups from the list of problem areas approved by the faculty. However, any learning unit which has the approval of the grade faculty may be chosen by the teachers and student groups. It is probably fair to state that in the main the units selected are closely related to the problem areas listed. When the problem areas were set up several years ago, some of them were "pegged" at certain grade levels, which meant that learning units based upon such pegged problem areas were required. Gradually the program has become more flexible.

Between the two extremes represented by the Maryland programs described above and the University School Program, many variations are possible. Probably the general tendency is to start with a rather fixed program to provide teacher and student security. As resources are developed and the faculty and students gain experience in the cooperative selection, planning, and carrying out of learning units, there is a tendency to relax requirements and to permit wide discretion in choosing learning activities.

EVALUATION. The various types of core programs (*Types Two, Three and Four*) presented thus far are regarded as transitional in character. They may be regarded as bridges, to cross from the extreme, relatively ineffective systematic subject approach to general education (*Type One*) to a program such as the *Type-Five Core*, which is based on the persistent common needs and problems of youth. To the extremist, the program seems too stereotyped because of the structured problem areas. To the conventional educator, it seems too radical and too far removed from the kind of program for which most teachers are prepared. There is much evidence, however, to support the conviction that with good leadership the average teaching staff is competent to make the transition. In the judgment of the author, the *Type-Five Core* is the most promising curriculum design for transforming general education in the high school into a program suited to the challenging times. It has these advantages:

1. Such a program makes possible a direct attack upon the needs of youth and the problems which beset them in our present-day confused culture. The traditional program is based upon the assumption that once young people have gained some degree of mastery of the so-called fundamental subjects—English, history, science, and mathematics—they will then be able to cope successfully with their problems. The program under discussion reverses the process. Common problems of youth are identified; they are studied intensively, drawing upon appropriate subject matter, and solutions are reached by the use of individual and group thinking. The so-called fundamentals are learned functionally, and there is plenty of evidence to support the conclusion that such learning is more effective.

2. Such a program provides an effective means of bridging the gap between education and guidance, between the curriculum and the extra-curriculum, between general and special interest education. Home room activities, and individual and group guidance become an integral part of the educative process as the teacher and students go about the solving of problems. Likewise, many of the informal student activities, class and school business, clubs, and organizations are absorbed in the block of time devoted to the core,

or general education. Special interests of students are cultivated in the core up to the point where laboratories and studies and specialized instruction are needed.

3. It tends to break down the class barriers which so frequently are maintained in the traditional program. The use of the broad, comprehensive units of work makes possible provision for individual differences in abilities and in rates of learning, thus obviating the necessity for sectioning, or ability grouping. Students of all social and economic levels work together in the solving of common problems, thus exemplifying democratic living at its best.

4. It facilitates the unification of knowledge. Subjects are no longer taught in water-tight compartments. Problems of living refuse to be strait-jacketed into logically organized systems of knowledge. Interrelationships among subjects and fields are established as the various disciplines are drawn upon as needed.

5. Such a program is consistent with the newer theories of learning and transfer. For the most part traditional instruction is based upon the atomistic approach to learning. On the other hand, the core, with its emphasis upon broad comprehensive units of work and vital problems of living, stresses the organismic approach. Transfer of training takes place through the enrichment of meanings and their use in a wide variety of life situations.

6. Such a program encourages the teaching staff to plan and work together. In the compartmentalized program of general education, each teacher works more or less in isolation from his fellows. The English teachers have no need to cooperate with the social studies or science teachers. Each group plans its own program out of relationship with the others. Such situations cannot exist in the type of program which we are considering. Teachers of *all* areas have contributions to make and have a stake in the outcome. If it is to be successful, such contributions must be elicited and utilized. Thus, the teaching staff must work together as a whole.

7. Such a program encourages the use of democratic practices in the classroom. The subject-centered program, with its fixed quotas of subject matter to be mastered, is not conducive to teacher-

student planning. Really there is little about which to plan! The problem-centered approach changes the scene completely. The student has a role in identifying problems, in planning the attacks upon them, and in evaluating the effectiveness of the work. These practices are the essence of the democratic process.

8. It encourages the use of the community as a laboratory for learning. The common problems of youth grow out of the interaction of the student and his immediate and wider environment. They do not exist "under the skin" of the individual. Problems of home and family living, for example, cannot be isolated from the environmental conditions surrounding the home. Thus the classroom takes on the character of a meeting place for planning the attack on the problems. The activities of the students, as they go about discovering pertinent data, are bound to take the class out into the community. Incidentally, the large block of time set aside for the core makes such community exploration possible without encroaching upon the time allotted to other school activities.

9. Such a program makes it possible for teachers to reduce materially the student loads which they are required to carry in a traditional program. Loads of 175 students per day are not uncommon. Obviously the teacher who carries two core groups of three periods each would have only one-third as many different students per day as the teacher who handles six separate classes. The core organization, in cutting down the student load, makes it possible for teachers to know students more intimately and hence to guide them more effectively.

Type-Six Core, Based on the Teacher-Student Planned Activities Without Reference to Any Formal Structure. The discussion of the *Type-Five Core* Program should have made clear the point that there are wide differences in practice in the use of the structured problem areas. Programs were presented in which the problem areas actually determine all of the learning units developed in the classroom. At the other extreme, a program was presented in which all of the problem areas were regarded as suggestive. The next logical step would be to *eliminate problem areas entirely*, leaving the choice of

learning activities exclusively to the teacher and his group of students.²³

In such a program, criteria as to what constitutes a satisfactory unit of work are usually developed cooperatively. Proposals of units or problems are made by the students and teacher. These proposals are evaluated in terms of the criteria, and decisions are made. The actual "design" of the program could be determined only by a record of what had been undertaken at each grade level during the course of the year.

The argument for such a program is very simple. The teacher and students are most competent to determine the common needs of the particular group and hence to determine the learning activities best suited to meet these needs. Structuring the program in advance is just another way of imposing subject matter. The group process of determining problems, goals, and ways of working is more important than the actual subject matter that makes up the program.

Some so-called progressive elementary schools are organized upon this basis. It is impossible to find any design or structure in the program. This does not mean that there are no agreed-upon values or objectives, or that teachers are not sensitive to the need for developing certain recognized skills of living. It does mean, however, that no design for meeting common needs is set up in advance.

Few if any secondary schools are organized wholly on this basis, even though the U. S. Office of Education in the study previously cited²⁴ reports that approximately 14 high schools use this plan exclusively. Probably the nearest approach would be the Gillespie Junior High School of Philadelphia, as described by Gertrude Noar,²⁵ and limited segments of the Denby High School in Detroit.²⁶

²³ See William H. Kilpatrick, *Remaking the Curriculum* New York, Newson and Company, 1936. L. Thomas Hopkins, *Integration, Its Meaning and Application* New York, D Appleton-Century Company, 1937

²⁴ Wright, *op cit.*, p. 71.

²⁵ Gertrude Noar, *Freedom to Live and Learn*. Philadelphia, Franklin Publishing Company, 1948.

²⁶ Roland Faunce and Nelson Bossing, *Developing the Core Curriculum*. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951. See especially Chapter VI, "A Core Class in Action" by Dr. Rosalind Zapf. See also a film strip prepared by Dr. Zapf entitled "A Core Class in Action," produced and distributed by Wayne University College of Education, Detroit, Michigan, 1948.

It is possible to find individual teachers in high schools operating on this basis. For example, a number of schools have provided administratively for a double or triple period for meeting common needs, giving wide discretion to the teachers as to what shall be taught. In such a school some teachers will teach traditional subject matter, say English, history, and science, in successive periods; some will correlate these subjects, some will fuse them on the basis of contemporary problems or culture epochs; some will set up their own individual problem areas; still others will discard all preconceived subject matter and base units of work upon the immediate felt needs of students. Thus, the same school might illustrate all of the types of core programs which we have discussed. Needless to say, such a school cannot be said to have a program design.

EVALUATION. This program satisfies those educators who emphasize almost exclusively "group processes" in education and hold that any predetermined curricular pattern violates the dynamic nature of the individual and of learning. On the other hand, it is far too tenuous and opportunistic to satisfy most teachers, administrators, and communities. In a small school where teachers could meet frequently and plan informally in terms of a well understood and accepted system of values, the plan might operate successfully. It is, however, unlikely that many high schools will adopt this type of program in the near future.

RELATIONSHIP OF THE CORE TO OTHER ASPECTS OF THE PROGRAM

Special-Interest Areas. If the common needs and interests of the students are largely cared for in the core, the remaining part of the curriculum might very well consist of special-interest fields such as mathematics, science, languages, literature, history, the arts, and vocational education. For example, within a core period of two hours a core unit might be developed, and within this block of time provision would also be made for the development of related skills and abilities, school and class problems, and guidance. The remaining part of the school day might be devoted to the pursuit of special interests, chosen by the student with the help of his coun-

selor, and to student activities such as student council, assemblies, clubs, and the like. This aspect of the curriculum is discussed in the chapter which follows.

The Guidance and Counseling Program. The core period would supplant the homeroom period and absorb many of its activities, including guidance and counseling. The problems discussed in the core unit are so intimately related to the personal problems of the students that group activities become organically related to the program of guidance. The very close relationship between the curriculum and guidance is discussed fully in Chapter XI. A separately organized program of guidance and counseling is then necessary only to coordinate the guidance and counseling activities of teachers, and to deal with special cases which require extended study.

STAFFING THE CORE PROGRAM

By and large, teachers are not prepared for core work. This calls for an in-service program of teacher education, as well as for shifts in emphasis in teacher-education programs in the colleges. Even under present conditions, however, schools are finding it possible to staff the core fairly satisfactorily. Several plans are in use, depending largely upon local conditions. The *coordinating teacher plan* is fairly common. A teacher of broad training and experience is assigned to each group of students as coordinator of instruction and as counselor. This teacher is responsible for bringing together those members of the staff whose fields have major contributions to make to the unit which is to be taught, for pre-planning and specialized instruction. Thus, in a unit of housing, the coordinating teacher, who might represent the field of home economics, would draw upon specialists in the fields of industrial arts, social studies, fine arts, science, mathematics, and health to secure help in building resource materials, in preplanning the unit, and in giving specialized instruction at appropriate points. The more general instruction would be given by the coordinating teacher. Some schools have found it satisfactory to employ the *one-teacher plan*, in which a single teacher gives all of the instruction, and is responsible for counseling. Needless to say, such a teacher should have broad under

standings. A third type has become known as the *multiple-teacher plan*. In this scheme, the instruction is carried on by two or more teachers, representing different fields of specialization. These teachers have joint responsibility for teaching and counseling. Usually, when this plan is used, the size of the group is increased considerably in order to avoid increasing the cost of instruction.

INITIATING A CORE PROGRAM

The discussion of the core program in this chapter has been organized in terms of the progressive breaking down of subject lines and the substitution of a curriculum based upon the common needs, problems, and interests of adolescents in our democratic society.

Where should a school begin? Should it adopt the principle of gradualism and begin with a modest experiment in correlating or unifying English and social studies in one section of the incoming seventh grade, or should it move directly to a completely reorganized program for the entire high school? The answer is not simple. The gradual program may bog down and be abandoned before it has a chance to evolve. The drastic reorganization may alienate the community and destroy the morale of the school. In a final analysis, the school will have to decide, in terms of its background, the climate of the community, the preparation of the teachers and their enthusiasm for the new program, the type of reorganization which gives the most promise of success. The important point is that the plan be democratically conceived and carried out. Implicit in this process is the possibility of change and refinement in the light of new experience.

SUMMARY

As a result of the survey of existing practices in the organization of general education in the high school it is possible to draw a number of tentative conclusions.

Extent of Reorganization

- A. Most high schools in the United States base their program of general education almost completely upon a number of required logically organized subjects, each one of which is taught separately.

- B. Only a small number of high schools, 86 per cent of which are at the junior high level, have moved *in the direction* of a reorganized general-education program, based upon adolescent needs or problems.
- C. Probably less than 200 public high schools have actually developed general-education programs (*Type-Five* and *Six Core*) which provide for a direct attack upon the common needs, and problems of students.
- D. There appears to be a general trend among schools that are engaged in revising their programs of general education, toward a core in terms of structured problem areas, (*Type Five*) based upon the persistent common needs, problems, and interest of youth.

Common Characteristics of Core Programs. It is to be expected that an evolving concept such as the core would not have a precise and fixed meaning. Practically the only element which the six types of core presented in this chapter have in common is that they all involve *that part of the total curriculum which is held to be essential for all students, and which, as a consequence, is required of all.* In addition to this one element, most core programs (particularly *Types Four, Five and Six*), possess many of the following characteristics.

1. Learning activities cut across conventional subject-matter lines. This may involve "putting two or more subjects together" or complete disregard of boundaries. In the more advanced types, *Five and Six*, logically organized subject-matter is utilized only when it is needed to achieve the aims of the unit.
2. The core utilizes a relatively large block of time in the daily schedule in order to make possible diversified activities such as trips, library work, discussions, demonstrations, and experimentation, without disruption of other scheduled classes.
3. The core provides for the extensive use of teacher-student planning in terms of the immediate and long-range needs, problems, and interests of students.
4. The core encourages, and frequently provides for cooperative planning and teaching in terms of the most effective use of the specialized abilities of the teaching personnel.
5. The scope and sequence of learning activities are determined by the needs of the situation rather than by the logical organization of any one subject or field.
6. The core organization tends to discourage the use of long periods for drill or laboratory exercises which do not contribute directly to the central problems involved in the unit. Regular drill periods are not set aside but are planned as the need develops.
7. The core absorbs the activities generally assigned to homerooms, such

as class business, social affairs, and the recording and reporting of student progress.

8. Core programs include the guidance and counseling function. Guidance and the curriculum become inseparably connected.
9. The core organization encourages the development of broad comprehensive resource units which teachers may draw upon in planning learning activities.
10. A distinction is frequently made between the *core period*, which embraces many marginal and related activities (e.g., drill, leisure reading, supervised study), and the *core unit* of work which serves as the unifying center of the activities of students.

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CHAPTER VII

THE PLACE OF THE SPECIAL-INTEREST AREAS IN THE CURRICULUM

In the previous chapter an analysis was made of the designs of the general-education program in the high school. It was pointed out that the role of general education is to provide a program for the purpose of developing the *common* values, understandings, and skills needed by all students for democratic citizenship. Special-interest education is for the purpose of meeting the *specialized* needs, problems, and interests of students. The general-education program is to utilize from one-third to two-thirds of the student's time, leaving approximately the same amount of time for the special-interest program. In the junior-high school, probably two-thirds of the student's time would be given over to general education, while in the senior-high school two-thirds of the time would be spent in the special-interest areas. In other words, the amount of time given over to special-interest education increases as the student advances to the senior-high school.

It was pointed out also that the special-interest areas might be thought of as embracing two types of experience: (1) Non-vocational activities, and (2) vocational activities.

The purpose of the present chapter is to explore the role of the special-interest areas in the high-school program.

THE IMPORTANCE OF THE SPECIAL-INTEREST AREAS

General education and special-interest education are two inter-related facets of a good program of high-school education. They are not, as is sometimes believed, at war with each other. Democratic education is equally concerned with both facets. The survival of our democracy depends upon the development of citizens who have common understandings, common ways of behaving, and common outlooks on life. But democratic education also recognizes that the strength of democracy lies in the cultivation of the uniqueness of each citizen. It is only when the cultivated talents of each individual are utilized for the common good that democracy can function at its best.

It follows then that the school needs to give special attention to the nature of the program which it provides for meeting the special needs of students and groups of students.

THE SPECIAL-INTEREST PROGRAM

High schools have for a long time given a good deal of attention to this part of the curriculum.

When schools operated in terms of faculty psychology and formal discipline, it was not necessary to give much attention to the problem—for one subject was held to be as good as another, but that was a long time ago. During the past three or four decades the offerings of the high school have increased enormously—and most of the increased offerings have been in the areas of electives designed to meet the needs of particular groups of students. The Biennial Survey¹ enumerates a vast array of courses in each of the major areas. For example, in the field of English, in addition to the usual required offerings are listed speech and public speaking, dramatic art, debate, radio speaking and broadcasting, journalism, creative writing, world literature, Bible, remedial English, and pen-

¹ *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1948-50. Chapter V. "Offerings and Enrollments in High-School Subjects."* Washington, Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, 1951.

manship. In the field of the social studies, in addition to the usual requirements of American History, Civics, and Problems of Democracy, are listed: Occupations, Orientation, Latin-American History, State History, Ancient, Medieval, and Modern World History, World Geography, American Geography, International Relations, Economics, Sociology, Psychology, and Consumer Education. Science has been proliferated to embrace such subjects as aeronautics, electricity, radio (including electronics), conservation, and the like. In the arts areas, the expansion is even more striking. The usual non-vocational industrial arts courses are augmented by printing, electrical work, handcrafts, automobile mechanics, home mechanics, photography, ceramics, and industrial arts mathematics. In spite of the decreased emphasis on foreign language, the report lists the following courses as being given in *some* public high schools for some students: Spanish, Latin, French, German, Italian, Hebrew, Greek, Polish, Portuguese, Swedish, Norse, Bohemian, Russian, and General foreign language.²

If we add to this imposing array of courses offered to meet the special interests of high-school students, the offerings in the so-called extra-curricular area³ which are designed to supplement and extend the course provisions for special-interest education, we need no further documentation that schools are alert to the need for taking care of the special problems, needs, and interests of students.

It is interesting to speculate on why schools seem to have given more attention to the expansion of the special-interest areas than they have to the improvement of the provisions for general education. *First* of all, we recognize that it is always easier to *add* to the curriculum than to change the existing framework. An elective course in electronics, for example, can be added without disturbing any vested interest, but the advocacy of handling common mathematical concepts in the core instead of in a separate course arouses debate at once, because it disturbs the *status quo*. *Second*, the enormous increase of the high-school population has lowered the

² *Ibid.*, pp. 30-41, 112-113, *passim*.

³ See Ellsworth Tompkins, *The Activity Period in Public High Schools*. Bulletin 1951, No. 19. Washington, Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, 1951, for an analysis of the use of the activity period

average intelligence of the students enrolled and has literally forced the introduction of non-academic courses; and *third*, special-interest courses often have strong advocates outside of the school who propagandize for their favorite interests. It is much easier to satisfy this demand by adding a course than by incorporating the idea in an existing course.

General education cannot be greatly improved by the same process. New courses have already been added to the general-education requirement in such numbers as to jeopardize the special interests of students. If there are eight or nine "mandated" units out of a total of sixteen required for graduation, the amount of time for the cultivation of special interests is cut down materially. To improve general education, then, requires not an *expansion* of offerings but rather a reconsideration of the concept of what constitutes general education, and a drastic reorganization of the program. Most schools have not faced this problem.

Weaknesses of Special-Interest Programs. After examining the rich offerings, one might be disposed to forego criticism, but a closer look reveals a number of weaknesses which merit some attention.

1. *The offerings in small schools are meager and consist largely of college-preparatory subjects.* This is true even though a relatively small percentage of students go to college. What few non-academic courses are offered are not available to the college-bound student because he must meet the academic requirements. Few of such students have any opportunities to develop their talents in the arts because their programs are over-crowded with "required electives." In some schools, students in the ninth grade must elect either Latin or industrial arts or home economics. This, of course, doesn't make sense in terms of the kind of education needed for effective citizenship.

2. *High-school programs of study are often organized in such a way as to perpetuate the class structure in society.* Non-academic students are isolated from their "academic" fellows even in the general-education program. Students become labeled as "agricultural," "industrial," "commercial," or "academic." This is because of

the rigidity of the multiple-choice curriculum, which fortunately is on its way out.

3. *Areas, such as music and the arts, are often branded as frills and of lower quality than "solid" subjects like mathematics or foreign languages.* The obvious result is to make them appear less desirable to students. This depreciation is also noticeable in the provision for facilities and personnel which schools make. It is not unusual for a large senior high school to employ only one or two art teachers.

4. *Many of the offerings are mere fragments of areas, quite divorced from the main stream of living.* This perpetuates the specialism which has long been the concern even of the colleges. Illustrations of such courses are penmanship, radio physics, plastics, house planning, cartooning, etc.⁴ Perhaps one should not quarrel about such courses, but common sense would dictate that they be placed in a larger setting.

5. *There is frequently a dualism in organization and methodology between the academic and non-academic offerings.* The non-academic program is likely to be experience-centered, organized in terms of problems, projects, and units of work, while academic instruction follows the traditional pattern of ground-to-be-covered and lessons-to-be-learned.

THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE SPECIAL-INTEREST PROGRAM

Many specific suggestions might be offered to improve the special-interest program. There is need for giving the same detailed attention to this program as that of general education. The same principles of organization, of learning, and of evaluation apply in both facets of the curriculum. The improvement of each of the major areas is the job of the specialist working closely with his fellow teachers in the area of general education. Such a study is beyond the scope of the present discussion.

The following general suggestions are predicated upon the assumption that *the high-school has a distinct obligation to meet all legit-*

⁴ *Ibid.* See appendix, pp. 109-118.

imate needs and interests of the students. In practice, of course, this cannot be done. The school then must choose from among the various possibilities. The following principles directed toward helping schools with this problem were developed cooperatively by a seminar group under the direction of the author.⁵

1. *Priority is given to those activities which meet the special interests of relatively large numbers of students.* As has previously been stated, it is seldom possible to achieve in a real school situation the ideal program in which *all* special interests of *all* students are given optimal opportunity for development. Decisions will therefore have to be made in each school or school system as to which special needs and interests of its student population it is possible to meet and which ones, for the time being at least, will have to be neglected. It would seem that the first responsibility of a democratic school is to meet as adequately as possible the needs of as many of its students as possible, and therefore the first question to be asked should be: What special-interest offerings will be of benefit to the largest number of students?

2. *Priority is given to those activities which will foster the widest possible variety of opportunities for vocational and avocational pursuit.* It is not to be inferred from the statement of Principle 1 that the only concern in setting up special-interest areas will be the relative number of people which each area can serve. It is obviously the concern of any democratic society that as great a variety as possible of the individual talents, both vocational and avocational, within that society be given maximum opportunity for development. It is only in this way that a society can most productively develop its human resources.

3. *Priority is given to those activities which are most appropriate to the needs and way of life of the particular community (immediate and wider).* This principle arises from the basic assumption

⁵ Alberty and others, *Utilizing Subject-Fields in High-School Core-Program Development*. Columbus, Ohio, The Ohio State University Press, 1950. (Mimeo) The following graduate students were members of this seminar: Roderic Du Chemin, Lewis Evans, Clarence Heinke, Elizabeth Hillier, Hugh Laughlin, Victor Lawhead, Mary Jane Loomis, Saul Milenthal, Sheldon Myers, Helen Nance, Carolyn Newsom, Jeanne Orr, Harold Reynard, Oscar Schaaf, Elsie Stalzer, Tien-Hsiang Tu.

that the school is a social institution, supported by society and having as its primary function the rendering of its own particular kind of service to the community. In choosing among special-interest offerings to be given, then, the degree to which a given area is appropriate to the way of life of the community should be considered.

4. *Priority is given to activities which enhance to the greatest extent the dominant values of democratic living.* This principle is, in a sense, a corollary to Principle 3. Since the school is a social institution rendering a service to society, and since ours is a democratic society, all the school's offerings both in general and in special education should help to develop in the students those human qualities which are necessary and desirable in a democracy. It should be noted, again, that these four principles are, in a sense, criteria to be applied in making choices among the various needed special-interest areas, in those situations where it is physically impossible to offer a special-interest program that will meet all the special needs and interests of all the students. It is to be hoped that these criteria will be applied as nearly as possible simultaneously and that choices will be made which will meet as many of them as fully as possible.

5. *The individual student receives competent, sympathetic guidance in seeing the need for development of special interests and in determining the worth of various offerings in meeting his needs.* Many students emphasize one particular interest to the exclusion of any others they might develop. For example, a student with an interest in science may concentrate all his efforts in the special area without having carefully considered the worth of all the various special-interest offerings in meeting his own individual needs. Guidance must be given to the student so that he will better see the desirability of developing a variety of interests that meet his own particular needs.

6. *Provision is made for meeting short-range as well as long-range special interests.* There is a tendency to assume that long-range special interests by virtue of their duration are more worthy of

attention than short-range ones. However, insofar as possible, provision should be made for any worthy special interest. For example, if a number of students indicate an interest in photography, it should be provided for whether their interest is one of relatively long or short duration. The program must be flexible enough so that it is not necessary that the special interest conform to the usual time allotments (quarter, semester, year, etc.) or to the traditional pattern of units.

7. *Special-interest offerings are adapted to individual needs within the special area.* The fact that a relatively large number of students indicate an interest in a particular special-interest area does not necessarily imply that they have an identity of needs or interests. For example, within the group which shares a special interest in mathematics, there is a wide diversity of interests and needs. Some students may be particularly interested in studying the slide rule, others in probability, and still others in mathematics as a means of preparation for college. The special-interest area should provide for all the needs and interests of the group.

8. *The special-interest area is developed in relation to general education and other special areas.* The development of special-interest areas along the lines suggested by these principles presupposes a type of general education that will discover and extend the specialized abilities and interests of students to the point where separate organizations are required for meeting them. Reciprocal relationship should exist between learning experiences in the general-education program and those provided in the special-interest areas. (See Chapter VII)

9. *Care is taken to be sensitive to harmful effects of arbitrary grouping of students in special-interest areas.* The school administration will do everything in its power to be certain that the individual student is able to explore areas in which he has a real interest. Arbitrary grouping of students can be the result of parental influence, hurried "guidance" by the schools' schedule makers, and pressure from the individual student's friends. Interest tests, aptitude tests, intelligence tests, etc., along with any other information in

the students' personnel files kept by the administration, should give clues to the actual interest areas to be pursued by students. Choice of the wrong interest area can lead to waste of human resources, frustration of the individual, and the general unhappiness of him and his family.

10. *Care is taken to be sensitive to the tendency of special-interest area groups to form along social-class lines.* Since individual differences in both ability and purpose are determined to a large extent by home background, it is natural that interest groups will form along social-class lines. It is not the function of the school to guide students into groups in such a way that all signs of class are eliminated from every group to which they belong. Neither should it place students in interest areas according to the economic group to which they belong. In forming interest-area groups, emphasis should be placed upon the individual student's interests and abilities, and not upon his social status. It is therefore the responsibility of the school in forming these groups to create new administrative devices (and revise already existing devices) so that they will contribute to this emphasis. School officials should be particularly sensitive to the tendency to use social-class lines in determining homogeneous groups and to place students in college-preparatory groups. Emphasis on class can be lessened if all areas enjoy equal status.

11. *All special-interest areas are considered as integral parts of the curriculum even though they encompass activities traditionally thought of as extra-curricular.* One phase of a policy of giving all interest areas in a school equal status is to eliminate the dichotomy between the so-called "curricular" and "extra-curricular" activities. This calls for a curriculum reorganization that would give credit for all activities. This credit would be given on the basis of how much the activities in the area contributed to the accomplishment of the school objectives. If credit is determined in this fashion, it is likely that the dichotomy will disappear, particularly if democracy prevails to an equal extent in both types of activity.

It should be understood, of course, that these principles are offered as guide-lines for setting up special-interest areas. The exact use which is made of them and the relative value of each principle

will be determined by the situation in a particular school or school system.

THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE SPECIAL-AREA TEACHER

Obviously the contribution of the special-area teacher, or the specialist as he is sometimes called, is primarily to meet the special needs, problems, and interests of students. To perform this function he needs to be well prepared in his field both from the instruction and guidance standpoint. But he needs also to see his specialty in its relationship to the total program of the school—and particularly to the program of general education. Many of the interests of the student will arise in the area of general education—particularly if it is organized as an adolescent-problems core. It is the business of the specialist to carry forward these interests in an environment conducive to their development. These maturing interests should also play back into the core to enrich it.

The Special-Interest Teacher and the Core Program. When the general-education program is organized on the basis of an adolescent-problems core (Type Five) the special area teacher has two distinct responsibilities: (1) To contribute in the pre-planning stage, e g., the development of resource units, and (2) to participate in actual classroom instruction in terms of his specialization.

1. *Resource-unit development.* In Chapters XIV and XV of this volume, it is established that resource units are best developed by a group representing as many areas of the curriculum as possible. When a unit is developed by one teacher it is likely to reflect the special interests of that teacher. He is likely to be somewhat insensitive to the possible contributions of other areas of the curriculum. The techniques for effective group work of this type are not very well established. However, the specialist may be of assistance in determining the scope of the resource unit, in determining the possible activities which might be suggested for students, and in the preparation of the bibliography and teaching aids.

In the following example,⁶ the group of special-interest area

⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 35–36.

teachers formulated the statement of the activity (one of 66) and then proposed the contributions which they thought their fields might make to the carrying out of the activity.

THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF SPECIAL-INTEREST AREA TEACHERS TO A PROPOSED ACTIVITY

Make a chemical analysis of common drugs used in the personal care of the body, such as soaps, tooth paste, deodorants, and face and talcum powder. Such analysis might be used to show the significance of harmful ingredients in drugs and the comparative purity of different brands.

ARTS:

Cartoon portrayal of harmful action of some ingredients, such as wearing enamel off teeth.

DISTRIBUTIVE EDUCATION.

A study of the Better Business Bureau. A note of caution might be made here regarding the *scare* approach in consumer education. Most businesses strive to do the right thing and spend a great deal of money and time in making continuous tests on their products and even set up Better Business Bureaus to control their business practices. If this effort is explained at the same time that reference is being made to bad business practices, it will give the student the right attitude.

HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION:

1. Analysis of advertising as it relates to soaps, drugs, etc.
2. Helping students use the method of intelligence in solving their grooming problems.

HOME ECONOMICS.

The relation of consumer drugs and cosmetics to the improvement of personal appearance. e.g., analyze labels on cosmetics to determine kinds and amount of the ingredients present; prepare simple cosmetics, such as shampoo, deodorants, face and body powder, exhibit pictures showing harmful effect of cosmetics and drugs; set up criteria to use for judging cosmetics and drugs, secure and display in charts or graphs or posters, information showing how the government protects the consumer, present skit showing how food and drug laws affect us; analyze and exhibit good and bad advertisements of various drugs and cosmetics; collect articles from recent periodicals and examine them for their reliability of source and information about them; demonstrate effects of certain drugs and cosmetics on skin of different texture.

LANGUAGE ARTS:

Analysis of propaganda language: e.g., sensitivity to connotations of weighted words, deriving exact meanings from statements which are phrased in such a way as to seem to give a meaning which is not the same as their actual meaning.

MATHEMATICS:

The nature of proof. e.g., analyze and judge the relative reliability of suggestions that are the result of the pressure of commercial advertising and other special interests.

SCIENCE:

Chemical analysis of such materials as drugs, soaps, tooth pastes, deodorants, face and talcum powders, and others used in the care of the body.

SOCIAL STUDIES.

1. The Pure Food and Drugs Act its provisions, why it was needed and why the government had to pass such a law, how the law is enforced.
2. Historical use of personal "beautifiers", e.g., the powdered wigs of Colonial times, and cosmetics as used by the early Egyptians.

It is exceedingly doubtful that any *one* teacher would see as many possibilities for enrichment as are indicated by this brief analysis.

2 *Participating in classroom instruction.* If an activity such as the one stated above were actually to be developed in a core class, it is reasonable to suppose that the core teacher would elicit the help of one or more of the special-area teachers. For example, the class might go to the science laboratory and make the suggested analyses under the direction of the science teacher. The home economist might well be called in to discuss drugs and personal appearance. The participation would, of course, depend upon the competence of the core teacher. He would ask for help at the particular points where it was most needed.

**SOME ILLUSTRATIONS OF PARTICIPATION OF
SPECIAL-AREA TEACHERS IN AN ADOLESCENT-
PROBLEMS CORE (TYPE FIVE)**

The Ohio State University School has, perhaps more than any other high school in America, experimented with the participation

of special-area teachers in the core program. In connection with the study of the subject-fields in core program development referred to in the previous section,⁷ a number of teachers of the University School were asked to describe briefly the way they participated in the core. In a few instances the core teacher explains the way special-interest area teachers assisted in the core. The following are verbatim reports selected from the study.

An Eleventh Grade Core Teacher Explains the Contributions of Special Area Teachers and Other Specialists to a Unit on Atomic Energy. A core group of twenty-five eleventh-grade pupils spent approximately two months studying a unit "Living in the Atomic Age." The following outline of the learning unit was used for study:

- A. Important Historical Developments Previous to Hiroshima Related to the Release of Atomic Energy
- B. Technical Problems of Atomic Energy Release
 - 1. The Atom
 - 2. Production of Atomic Energy
- C. The Negative or Wartime Uses of Atomic Energy
 - 1. The Atomic Bomb
- D. The Positive Uses of Atomic Energy
 - 1. Radioactive Isotopes
 - 2. Atomic Piles
 - 3. Present and Future Plans for Harnessing Atomic Energy
- E. Problems of Control of Atomic Energy
 - 1. Domestic Control
 - a. Atomic Energy Act
 - b. Atomic Energy Commission
 - c. Different Points of View Regarding Domestic Control
 - 2. International Control
 - a. United Nations Atomic Energy Commission
 - b. Difference in Point of View of the United States and the Soviet Union

This outline resulted from discussions by the core teacher and the pupils of the problems resulting from the knowledge that atomic energy could be released. When agreement was reached that the

⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 59-73.

outline was suitable for the study of the learning unit it was immediately seen that there would be need for help from many special-area teachers and others.

The librarian not only supplied references and materials for the entire learning unit but also was particularly helpful with the first part of the unit dealing with the historical developments related to the release of atomic energy. The information available on this topic was found in pamphlets and fugitive materials published by many different scientific and social agencies and organizations. Bringing the information together would have been most difficult without the help of the librarian.

When consideration was given to the second part of the unit, technical problems of atomic-energy release, the physics teacher spent three days in the core class explaining atomic fission. This same teacher arranged a trip to a cyclotron. Following the trip, this physics teacher met with the group for another class session, discussing the visit to the cyclotron and discussing the role and responsibility of the scientist with respect to problems that result from scientific advancement.

The physician helped the group understand the use of radio isotopes in the advancement of medical science. Special reference was made to thyroid illnesses.

The core teacher moderated a forum of the town-meeting type in which the question was discussed: Should the United States have used the atomic bomb at Hiroshima and Nagasaki? Had the core teacher not felt competent, a social-studies teacher might have been asked to moderate this forum.

An arts teacher helped committees construct charts showing the organization of the different atomic-energy committees and commissions. This teacher also helped one member of the class to produce a map of the world showing where atomic bombs had been exploded. A scientist who had been at Bikini visited the class and discussed that operation. A glossary of terms was prepared with the help of the librarian, the science teacher, an English teacher, and the core teacher.

In evaluating the learning unit, the group agreed that the study had been enhanced through the use of the services of the many special-area teachers and other specialists.

Submitted by HUGH LAUGHLIN

A Related-Arts Teacher Tells of Her Contributions to a Seventh-Grade Activity Which Was Carried Through in the Core Block of Time Outside of the Unit of Study. The seventh-grade group, having worked as a group for more than two quarters and having been members of the seventh-grade and eighth-grade social-dancing class, decided to have a class party and dance. The core teacher asked the home-arts teacher and me to attend the initial planning session. At that time, several general themes were suggested and we contributed to the *pros* and *cons* of each. I suggested several activities to illustrate the possibilities of each theme and pointed out some of the impractical aspects of certain suggestions. After lengthy discussion, a consensus was reached and each member of the class volunteered for one of three committees; arrangements and entertainment, refreshments, and decorations. The core teacher served as adviser to the entertainment committee, the home-arts teacher served as adviser to the refreshment committee, and I was to help with the decorations group. Each group selected a chairman and secretary. I found that one of my major contributions was to help the chairman of the group to see the necessity for checking plans with the general chairman and other committees, for planning toward an over-all effect, and for planning the specific contributions of each person.

I brought a large amount of resource materials in for members of the committee. The decorations group spent several periods sharing ideas. As soon as the plans became definite enough, we redivided into three smaller units, each of which proceeded to execute its part of group planning while I served as the go-between and coordinator. I moved from group to group, helping them to explore materials and select the most appropriate ones, to develop the best working techniques, to find a suitable working space, storage for materials, etc.

Throughout the entire process, the core teacher kept in touch with what the committees were doing, and the core time was planned accordingly. The project, including the planning, lasted about six weeks, but no more than three hours were given to it during any one week.

Since the class could not work in the recreation room until the actual day of the party, we used the mathematics and arts periods (because they were scheduled during the hours when the room was available) for the committee to put the decorations into place. I took over the entire guidance responsibility at this time since the core teacher had other teaching responsibilities (My classes were handled by other members of the arts staff who assumed the extra load.)

During the party, I was a guest of the class and enjoyed a delightful evening of dancing, games, and refreshments.

Several days later, I was asked by the core teacher to participate in the group evaluation of the party. I again worked with the decoration committee and we made a list of suggestions to help future groups work more effectively. I was also asked to contribute to the class discussion, after which I participated with the staff members involved in a short evaluation of the project.

Submitted by JEANNE ORR

A Science Teacher Explains His Participation as a Resource and Service Person in a Laboratory in an Eighth-Grade Core. The core activities of the eighth-grade were concerned with a study of the early cultural history of the world. As the unit developed and areas of exploration and research were decided upon, many questions of a scientific nature arose.

They were related to the beliefs and superstitions about the heavenly bodies, the development and use of simple machines, floating bodies, the making and coloring of glass, the making of lenses and their use in various optical instruments, and the scientific contributions of famous men during the period studied.

Because of the nature of the questions and the desire of the group to explore them further, science teachers at various times during the

year were asked to discuss with the group the kinds and types of activities and experiences that would be useful in gaining an understanding of the problems that were being considered. The science teachers discussed in some detail the ways in which their area could contribute. As problems arose where the science area could enrich the experiences of the group, suggestions were made as to possible demonstrations, experiments, field trips around the campus, readings, and audio-visual aids. The suggestion was also made that the specific and objective nature of the questions provided good opportunity for experience in problem-solving in situations which called for the discovery of cause-and-effect relationships.

It was decided that one period of the time, and more if necessary, would be made available for activities in science.

As questions were analyzed and accuracy of guesses were questioned, the group saw the need for some actual experimental evidence in order to reach a decision. Thus interest in laboratory experience was developed.

Science laboratory facilities were available and were used from time to time as the questions under discussion offered opportunities for students to set up equipment, make and record observations, and draw conclusions. Students were encouraged to suggest ways of setting up original experiments. For the most part, however, it was necessary to direct their thinking in the laboratory through guide sheets. These listed suggested procedures and related questions, and brought out the practical application of the experimental results.

On one occasion, because of the availability of materials, it was decided to conduct an experiment before the group. Students did the actual manipulations while the others observed and recorded observations. This group experience in observation, together with discussion as the experiment proceeded, provided a good opportunity for students and teachers to check the validity of hypotheses, the accuracy of observations, and the soundness of generalizations which were made when the experiment was completed.

It should be noted that at times problems arose which were not

directly related to the core problem of the group. Some of these problems were of general interest and the entire group would participate in their solution. Others were worked on by smaller groups especially interested in them and in their solution.

As the unit developed, a need arose for certain scientific information that required research and experimentation. The core class appointed a committee to carry on the necessary research; it used the laboratory facilities for this purpose and reported results to the class.

Submitted by LEWIS EVANS

A Music Teacher Tells of the Contribution of That Area to the Core Program. The music teacher may work in the core program in various ways. He may serve as a consultant, suggesting materials for the core teacher to use, he may work with special groups or committees from the class who are studying special phases of a problem, or he may work more directly with the total class in numerous ways.

To incorporate music experiences into some of the problem areas has called for materials which are not at this time readily available to schools. A second difficulty is that the type of music which is appropriate as resource material often calls for musical readiness of the students, or enough time in the core to build understandings and appreciations if the musical experience is to be meaningful to anyone besides the teacher.

Three examples of the use of music in University School's core program where the materials were enjoyable for the students, where they contributed to the understanding of the problem under study, and where the experience resulted in more understanding and appreciation of music, come from the seventh and eighth-grade levels. One unit entitled "Personality and Appearance" emphasized creative experiences; another unit, "Understanding My Body," presented an opportunity to study the physical basis for music; and a third, "The Living Past," brought out the current usages of music in our culture which stem from our heritage from other civilizations.

When an eighth-grade group decided to study "Personality and Appearance," the approach to music was made through suggesting

that personalities grow more interesting when persons are alert to what they hear and see around them, and also when they do not close the doors to new or unfamiliar experiences. Selections of music, painting, and poetry were presented to the class to show how the composers had observed and reacted to their surroundings. As a check on their own awareness of their environment, the boys and girls decided to carry through a project in which they might record their own impressions through some art form. They planned a brief trip on a city bus to a wooded section where construction work was underway. They planned upon their return to tell their impressions through singing, dancing, painting, or writing poems and stories. As preparation for this trip, the group discussed examples of impressionistic art—recordings of *Adventures in a Perambulator* by John Alden Carpenter, the poems, *Country Reds* and *City Reds* by Don Blanding, and various paintings of this style. Sixteen boys and girls decided to use music and dance as their means of expressing what they had seen and heard. They listed and organized their observations which could be told through song, instrument, dance, and pantomime. They elaborated on their impressions as an artist does through the imaginative presentation of ideas. Themes or motifs of music were composed, songs were written, dances were created, and accompaniments for their movement were improvised. The persons whose appearance and personality had been observed on the trip became the characters to pantomime in the musical drama. The complete playlet was presented before the class and later before the parents.

A common problem that concerns adolescents is the changing voice. This is a source of difficulty with many boys of this age. "Understanding My Body" provided a splendid opportunity to investigate the causes for this change, the function of the voice, the ear, and bodily co-ordination in speaking and singing. Using equipment from the science laboratory, and various musical instruments, the class explored the physical basis for tone, pitch, resonance, frequency, volume, modulation, and other aspects of sound waves and acoustics. Movies showing the larynx, the ear, the brain, the respiratory system, and sound waves helped answer many questions.

Recordings of the Seashore and Tilson-Gretsch Music Tests, as well as those of the Army Signal Corps, were used in various ways. Tape recordings were made of each student's singing and speaking in order to analyze problems of diction, enunciating, articulation, and pitch. Each one wished to check his singing range to see the type of adolescent voice he had at his stage of development. Students listened to records of singers to hear voice qualities, tone timber, breathing, and other things that they now understood. Interest in this study was personal and brought to light many concerns of junior-high school students.

For the study of "The Living Past," materials were selected to show how composers found inspiration and ideas in the past, and also that their work, in turn, is related to matters of present-day interest. "The Living Past" is a part of today. Their experience with the cycle of Wagner operas acquainted them not only with the music and the legends of the Norse gods, but also with artists who were being pictured and discussed in current magazines and newspapers—Melchior, Traubel, Flagstad, and others. The operas *Parsifal*, *Tannhauser*, *Il Trovatore*, and *Die Meistersinger* held more meaning when the class was discussing crusaders, troubadours, and medieval guilds. The pranks of *Till Eulenspiegel* and the *Sorcerer's Apprentice* from medieval legends were enjoyable listening. The mother of one student brought to the class her collection of early illuminated manuscripts and discussed the ways music became organized for notation. The Gregorian chant, still sung in the Catholic Church, greatly interested the students.

Many students in this group played musical instruments. Some of them asked to make a study of the ancestry of instruments and of their development during the Medieval and Renaissance periods. Persons in Columbus who played some of these early instruments were invited to come to the school. The ways that modern composers use the tonalities and modes of earlier cultures were particularly revealing and interesting to the class.

It is impossible to record all of the experiences which this eighth grade enjoyed in this area. The best measures of the values were the students' interest, which continued at a high peak, their worth-

while questions, and their pursuit of related experiences on their own initiative.

Submitted by MARY TOLBERT

The School Nurse Gives an Account of Her Role as a Consultant in a Seventh-Grade Unit on "Understanding My Body." Every Wednesday afternoon, the seventh-grade observes and participates in a Well-Child Conference conducted as an education project for the benefit of the University School students. The students observe and participate in the periodical health examinations of children conducted by the school physician and the school nurse. After the conference, the school nurse carries on discussion with the students. The following example is typical of the discussions which developed from this experience:

Nurse: "What does a pediatrician do when he examines a baby?"

Student: "What is a pediatrician?"

Another Student: "He is a baby doctor."

Nurse: "How long is the period of babyhood?"

Student: "Until we grow up."

Nurse: "When do we grow up?"

Student: "Some pediatricians see people until they are sixteen years old."

Nurse: "Some pediatricians stop seeing their patients at twelve or sixteen years. The important thing seems to be adolescence. But we are getting very far away from the purpose of my visit. I asked what a pediatrician did when he examined a patient."

Student: "He measures the soft spot."

Nurse: "Tell us about it."

Student: "The soft spot is on top of the baby's head. It is there so that the baby's head may grow."

Nurse: "Do you really mean to say head?"

Student: "No, I mean what's inside the head—the brain."

Nurse: "What other function does the soft spot serve?"

Student: "The soft spot enables the head to become smaller as it passes down the canal."

This classroom experience occurred following the first of a series of participation periods in the Well-Child Conference by the seventh grade at the beginning of their study of the unit "Understanding My Body."

Submitted by MOLLY PUGH

A Mathematics Teacher Tells of His Participation in a Seventh-Grade Unit on "Understanding My Body." While serving as a mathematics teacher on the seventh-grade staff at the University School, the writer became aware that the seventh grade was undertaking in their core, the unit of "Understanding My Body." In the pre-planning of the unit by the staff, the writer realized that one aspect of the unit—the study of weights and heights of boys and girls in the seventh grade—could be enriched and strengthened by the use of mathematical skills and concepts. The seventh-grade counsellor asked the writer to teach several days in the core, dealing with this aspect of the core unit, and helped him plan his work.

The writer prepared a study guide for the first day of his visit. One part contained questions suggesting further inquiries, discussions, and activities relative to these data. A third part suggested the construction of bar graphs showing frequency distributions of the data. These were discussed and interpreted on a second day.

Some typical questions from the study guide are as follows:

1. If all the boys climbed onto one end of a giant teeter-totter and all the girls climbed onto the other end, which end would go up and which end would go down?
2. If you lived in France, you would always give your weight in kilograms. Now if there are 2.2 pounds in every kilogram, how many kilograms would you weigh?
3. Can you tell from the data whether the heaviest seventh graders eat the most? What plan would you follow to find out?
4. What do you think makes a person taller or heavier than usual?
5. What do we mean by "usual" in the preceding question? Does the *usual* height of seventh graders mean the *middle* height or the *average* height?
6. There are 2000 pounds in each ton. How many tons does the seventh grade weigh? Would it be safe for all of you to ride on the elevator at the same time? How would you find out without actually trying it?

While all of these questions stimulated a great deal of interest, only a few contributed directly to the major objectives of the unit. For instance, numbers three, four, and five above, led directly into a study of the Whetzel Grid, which was explained and demonstrated by the school nurse on a later date. All students in the school have their heights and weights plotted periodically on Whetzel Grids, which are very sensitive to growth disturbances. Question three led into the matter of diets, which was developed in the core by the home-economics teacher.

This experience seems to indicate that the best results in utilizing the specialist in the core occur when the specialist is kept in immediate and continual contact with the core-unit planning.

Submitted by SHELDON MYERS

A Seventh-Grade Core Teacher Explains the Contributions of Special-Area Teachers to a Unit on "Understanding My Body." During the study of a unit centered around physical and mental health, the core teacher utilizes the service of many special-area teachers as well as the school doctor and nurse. When questions developed such as "What does it mean to be average height?" "Am I normal?" "What does it mean to be normal?" The mathematics teacher helped the class make a study of averages of all kinds of things, the price of shoes, size of rooms, heights of children, etc. The implications of such terms as "mean" and "mode" were discussed at length. This study of "Averages" and "Normal" led into a study of individual grids or patterns of growth as revealed by the Whetzel Grid Charts. The school nurse came in at this point, explained the charts, and helped each child understand his own pattern and his growth potential.

Another phase of the general study of growth was led by the science teacher. He illustrated cell growth with mold cultures and a study of cell formations under the microscope.

A trip to the X-ray department of a hospital was arranged by the school doctor. There the pupils saw, through the fluoroscope, the flow of barium compound which had been drunk by one of the boys in the group.

As a part of the study of reproduction, the changes in the secondary sex characteristics were noted. The music teacher talked to the group about voice change and illustrated it with voices of members of the group. She was able to foster a sense of masculine pride in the boys whose voices were in the process of changing so that they were less self-conscious about their temporary lack of control.

These are some illustrations of the ways in which specialists assisted the core teacher in a given unit. They do not represent all of the situations even in one unit. With another group at another time, the special-area people might be called upon to help solve quite a different set of problems pertaining to health.

Submitted by GENEVA HANNA

A Related-Arts Teacher Tells of Her Contributions to a Ninth-Grade Unit on Vocations. The ninth-grade core group was studying types of vocations including industrial labor. A trip through the Timken plant was planned by the group in the hope that the members would learn more about types of industrial work, working conditions, general atmosphere of a factory, etc., in addition to satisfying an interest in the process of making a product such as roller bearings. In the planning process, the group discussed types of evaluation or summary which might be logically anticipated for such an experience. The core teacher felt that some people might wish to express their feelings or impressions graphically and I was asked to discuss such possibilities with the group. While talking with the class, I explained how such things as noise, movement, pressure, monotony, etc., can be expressed through the abstract use of color, line, and form as well as in an actual representational way. Examples were cited of ways in which other classes had expressed their impressions of similar trips and I drew on the board several abstract symbols of contrasting ideas. The class suggested other ways of using color and line to express ideas and talked about types of things which they might look for, such as odors, rhythm, size, colors, danger, etc.

I was asked to accompany the class on the trip and, in addition to helping them to become sensitive to the aspects of work mentioned

above, was also given responsibility to help with general behavior and to give particular attention to the place of women in the factory so that I might later help the girls think particularly about problems related to this.

In the period which followed, about half the class came to the arts laboratory where tempera and oil paint, crayons, chalk, pen and ink, and various three-dimensional materials were made available to them. I gave help where needed, mainly in the offering of encouragement in a field which was somewhat new to students. The experience seemed to be extremely gratifying to both the student and faculty group involved.

Submitted by JEANNE ORR

A Home Economics Teacher Relates the Various Roles She Assumed in Contributing to the Core Program at Different Levels Throughout the High School. The home economics teacher has contributed to many units of study in the core program of the University School. Some of the units for various grade levels are listed with examples of how contributions were made. The unit "Understanding My Body" is described in more detail in order to clarify procedures used when a special-area person works closely with the core program.

The units of study in which the most help has been given are:

A. *Producer-Consumer Economics* (11th and/or 12th-grade core)

1. Service as a resource person
Supplied charts on guides to buying clothing and foods, contacted various persons in stores who could supply information and who were available for talks, helped to secure movies.
2. Participating in and conducting class discussions. Helped set up problems for discussion, supplied class with ready-made garments and fabrics for study and comparison, planned with students how they might better use their money.
3. Assistance on trips. A trip to Dickerson Shoe Company emphasized points previously discussed as to quality, workmanship, style, hours of labor, etc., included in the purchase price of a pair of shoes.

B. *Choosing a Vocation* (9th and/or 11th-grade core)

1. Acting as a resource person
Secured materials for class use
Obtained career records from gas company
2. Arranged trips for small groups
A talk and tour of the Union Store with a buyer for teen-age clothing.
3. Participation in class discussions
Special help was given small groups who were interested in such careers as modeling, designing, and interior decorating.

C. *Healthful Living* (10th-grade core)

1. Service as a resource person
Compiled a list of articles in recent magazines concerning health, as well as home-economics references that were suitable for both boys and girls. Suggested movies and film strips.
2. Participation in class discussion
Assisted in discussion of nutrition and diseases resulting from poor food habits.

D. *Sports and Recreation* (9th-grade core)

1. Service as a resource person
Made suggestions for leisure-time activities, such as outdoor cooking, folk games, and development of hobbies.
2. Assistance with field trip, planned with, and accompanied group on trip to Tar Hollow, acted as counselor and helped students plan and prepare the food for all meals.

E. *Personality and Appearance* (8th-grade core)

1. Service as a resource person
Obtained movies, contacted speakers, and distributed many booklets on grooming.
2. Conducting class discussion
Discussed questions concerning hair, complexion, healthful living, eating, etc.
3. Arranging demonstrations
Girls applied make-up, arranged their hair, manicured their nails, and experimented with color combinations suitable for themselves. Boys had an adult they admired talk with them about clothes. A skit was prepared by boys and girls emphasizing most important points studied in the unit.

4. Conferences with core counselor.

After each discussion or demonstration, further plans were made in order that the class progress and be challenged with new situation.

F. Understanding My Body (7th-grade core)

For the unit "Understanding My Body," which is studied at the junior-high school level, the grade staff met to discuss (1) problems that might be included in the unit, (2) ways of proceeding, and (3) how special-area teachers could be of the most help.

Following this meeting, those instructors who believed that they could make a contribution began spending time in the classrooms, especially when the students were discussing and planning for the unit. Only by hearing questions and comments of the students and becoming better acquainted with them can the special-area teachers be prepared to give help that is really worth-while.

Frequently, it is necessary to enter into conversations and be ready to add comments or ask questions to help the students discover areas which are worth studying. In the student discussion of problems to be included in this unit, someone mentioned "nutrition." Almost immediately the reaction was, "We don't want to talk about that—all that stuff about vitamins and calories is a lot of bunk, anyway." Questions that followed were: Do you know why you sometimes have a cramped feeling in your stomach when you exercise after a meal? Do the foods you eat have anything to do with your skin, your teeth, how much energy you have, etc.?

When the planning sessions were over and a proposed outline had been made, the core teacher and the writer made plans as to more detailed ways in which home-economics materials might be used and how she (the home economics teacher) could best work in the classroom. It seemed that the study of food and its relation to the body should be her major concern and her contribution could best be made in the following ways:

A. Leading class discussions

1. Why we need food
2. What specific groups of foods do for us

- B. Suggesting problems or activities
 - 1. Evaluation of food advertisements
 - 2. Calculation of amounts of foods needed to supply sufficient calories
- C. Student demonstrations
 - 1. The effect of Coca-Cola on protein assimilation
 - 2. Determination of starch and sugar in foods
- D. Securing films and printed materials

It is necessary to be in the classroom as often as possible when other special-area teachers are taking responsibility, so that any questions or statements relating to foods made then could be repeated or referred to later. This assures continuity of contributions made by special-area persons as well as guarding against unnecessary repetitions of materials already presented and discussed.

Submitted by CLARIBEL TAYLOR

SUMMARY

- A. The special-interest areas have a distinct and important contribution to make to the curriculum. Democracy demands that the unique abilities and talents of each individual be developed.
- B. The special-interest program of the high school has been enormously expanded during the past few decades. It now embraces hundreds of subjects designed to meet the specialized needs and interests of students.
- C. The demands of the colleges, real or fancied, often interfere with the development of significant interest and talents of students.
- D. The extra-curricular activities program and the special-interest courses are frequently not well unified.
- E. Schools should give attention to the securing of balance in their special-interest offerings. This may be facilitated by applying the following principles.
 - 1. Priority is given to those activities which meet the special interests of relatively large numbers of students.
 - 2. Priority is given to those activities which will foster the widest possible variety of opportunities for vocational and avocational pursuits.
 - 3. Priority is given to those activities which are most appropriate to the needs and way of life of the particular community (immediate and wider).

4. Priority is given to activities which enhance to the greatest extent the dominant values of democratic living.
 5. The individual student receives competent, sympathetic guidance in seeing the need for development of special interests and in determining the worth of various offerings in meeting his needs.
 6. Provision should be made for meeting short-range as well as long-range special interests.
 7. Special-interest offerings are adapted to individual needs *within* the special areas.
 8. The special-interest area is developed in relation to general education and other special areas.
 9. Care is taken to be sensitive to harmful effects of arbitrary grouping of students in special-interest areas.
 10. Care is taken to be sensitive to the tendency of special-interest area groups to form along social class lines.
 11. All special-interest areas are considered as integral parts of the curriculum even though they encompass activities traditionally thought of as extra-curricular.
- F. Special-interest area teachers have a significant role in core-program development. Their participation is needed
1. In helping to determine the scope of general education
 2. In developing resource materials for the core
 3. In giving specialized instruction in the core classroom
- G. The proper utilization of special-interest area teachers requires a good working relationship and careful budgeting of staff and time. This is not likely to prevail without the sympathetic understanding and leadership of administration.

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CHAPTER VIII

PROCEDURES IN CURRICULUM REORGANIZATION

Preceding chapters of this book have dealt with some of the foundations of curriculum development and reorganization. We have taken a critical look at high-school education today and found it deficient in many ways. We have tried to discover what it would really mean if we were to base the program squarely upon democratic values. We have looked to psychology for help in finding out what kind of learning is most effective. We have also struggled with the problem of trying to understand the adolescent—"what makes him tick." And finally, we have looked at the various possible designs of the curriculum as they apply to general education and special-interest education.

The present chapter presents a critical analysis of the six leading procedures in curriculum reorganization. They are as follows: The Textbook Procedure, The *Laissez-Faire* or "Blank-Check" Procedure, the "Scissors-and-Paste" Procedure, the Activity Analysis Procedure, The Social Functions Procedure, and the Adolescent-Problems Procedure.

THE TEXTBOOK PROCEDURE

Since the American high school is still dominated by the textbook, it is not surprising that most curriculum reorganization activities are centered around the selection of appropriate textbooks. This may be

done by state, city, county, or local school groups, depending upon the organization of the educational system. In some states, all basic textbooks are selected by the state board of education, by textbook commissions, or special committees appointed by the chief state school officer. In cities and counties, the procedures are much the same. They range from selection directly by the superintendent or principal, to selection by specially appointed committees of the teaching staff.

The basic assumption underlying this procedure is that the textbook writer is the expert. It is for him to determine what shall be taught in a particular subject. The school pronounces judgment upon the work of the various experts and selects the books best suited to its particular needs. The teacher passes on the material to the student by means of daily or unit assignments. New subjects are added, or old ones dropped, in terms of the studies of student needs, external pressures, the teacher's preparation or special interests, or a host of other factors. In any case, essentially the same basic assumption is applicable. The textbook writer determines the content of the curriculum.

The textbook writer, of course, has recourse to many sources of data in order to determine what shall be included. Among these are reports of national committees and commissions, scientific studies of children's interests and problems, logical systems of knowledge worked out by other experts, vocabulary studies, experimental teaching carried on personally or by others and reported in the literature, studies of the basic philosophy of education and the psychology of learning. The textbook committee has to decide how effectively he has used the resources at hand. The important point to consider here is that the basic research is utilized by the textbook writer rather than by the teaching staff of a particular school or by the teacher who uses the book.

If the selected books are not satisfactory, they may be displaced by means that are usually defined by law. Or they may be supplemented by other textbooks or by library reference materials. As a matter of fact, much of the literature in the field of method is devoted to helping the teacher to enrich the textbook by means of

other teaching materials such as supplementary books, audio-visual aids, learning devices, and the like. Often the shortcomings of the textbook are compensated for by the teacher who refuses to be enslaved by it. Obviously, this procedure ignores almost completely most of the principles of learning which have been discussed. It results in a static, atomistic program far removed from the problems of youth. However, considering the simplicity of carrying it out and the entrenchment of the textbook idea, it is likely to continue for a long time as the leading procedure in curriculum reorganization.

THE LAISSEZ-FAIRE OR BLANK-CHECK PROCEDURE

In some schools the pendulum has swung far in the opposite direction. The choice of curriculum materials is largely left to the individual teacher who by some means or other finds out what ought to be done next, then assembles the available resources, and tries, sometimes frantically, to secure other materials from outside sources such as libraries and publishers. Some of the so-called child-centered schools adopted this procedure. There was little or no advance planning. The curriculum of the school was recorded at the *end* of the year.

Some core programs are instituted by means of this procedure. The school decides to have a double period for the "core," instead of separate periods for English and Social Studies. The principal or supervisor leaves it to each teacher to do what he "thinks best." In other words the administration "signs a blank check" and the teacher fills in the amount. Sometimes the results are good—more often chaotic.

Needless to say, in this procedure there is great danger that efforts of teacher and students will be scattered and dissipated, significant problems overlooked, and worthwhile objectives of education not realized. Hence, the plan—if it may be called a plan—deserves all the criticism that has been heaped upon it by the traditional educator and by the critics of the school. As a matter of fact, much of the criticism of progressive education is based upon the assumption

that the above procedure is characteristic of *all* progressive schools. That such is not the case is discoverable by anyone who investigates the programs of the better schools of today.

THE "SCISSORS-AND-PASTE" PROCEDURE

Some schools have drawn heavily upon the curriculums that have been developed by other schools—so heavily, in fact, that it is almost impossible to detect any basic differences. For example, among state curriculum-reorganization programs, the basic features of the Virginia Plan have been very popular and have been widely copied. Needless to say, there is no reason why the good features of a given curriculum plan should not be utilized by others. However, when a plan is adopted by a school without intensive study and investigation, it is apt to be external and completely devitalized. In such cases, the teachers usually fall back on the textbook as the source of material simply because the "new" curriculum has never been made a part of their thinking. The attempt to reconstruct the curriculum by "scissors-and-paste" methods is at least indicative of a desire to improve the program of the school and as such is to be commended. As a procedure in curriculum reorganization, however, it has little or nothing to recommend it.

THE ACTIVITY-ANALYSIS PROCEDURE

Curriculum makers have been greatly influenced by a movement known as activity analysis which had its beginning more than a quarter of a century ago,¹ and had considerable vogue in the decade of 1920–1930. It is discussed here because many of the procedures advocated have been carried over into present-day curriculum reorganization programs. The basic idea was exceedingly simple. An analysis of human activity should be made in order to find out what activities people perform in the significant areas of human experience. As Bobbitt states, "education is to prepare men and women for

¹ Franklin Bobbitt, *The Curriculum*. Boston, Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1918. Franklin Bobbitt, *How to Make a Curriculum*. Boston, Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1924. W. W. Charters, *Curriculum Construction*. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1923.

the activities of every kind which make up, or which ought to make up, well-rounded adult life.”² Having discovered these activities, the job of the school is to teach students to perform them. The activities of adult life are the specific objectives of the curriculum. The activities by which students *learn* to perform them is the curriculum.

Bobbitt proposed a classification of major activities of life as the basis for his analysis. Since it has been widely used, it is probably worthwhile to quote it:

1. Language activities: social intercommunication.
2. Health activities.
3. Citizenship activities.
4. General social activities, meeting and mingling with others.
5. Spare time activities, amusements, recreation.
6. Keeping one's self mentally fit—analogous to the health activities of keeping one's self physically fit.
7. Religious activities.
8. Parental activities, the upbringing of children, the maintenance of a proper home life.
9. Unspecialized or non-vocational practical activities.
10. Labor in one's calling.³

Bobbitt then proceeded to analyze each of these major categories into appropriate specific subdivisions. The first nine categories yielded 821 specific objectives, stated as abilities, skills, habits, and knowledge. Thus, the objectives of education for any one individual would be the 821 specific objectives in the first nine categories plus the specific objectives called for in the particular vocation selected by that individual. These would be determined by the same activity-analysis technique. Bobbitt makes it clear that what he is proposing is a *technique* for curriculum making, not a *curriculum*. His analysis is suggestive of the kind that should be made.

Two difficulties immediately confront the curriculum maker who utilizes the activity-analysis technique. First, he recognizes that there is a very great difference between the activities that people actually perform and those that they *ought* to perform in terms of

² Franklin Bobbitt, *How to Make a Curriculum*, p. 7.

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 8-9.

the ideals and values held to be significant in the culture. In other words, a guiding philosophy is essential if the analysis of human activity is to be of value. The acceptance of this conclusion, however, tends to throw doubt on the analysis technique, for if the analysis is to be made upon the basis of a philosophy, it no longer possesses the objectivity which is one of the chief claims of its adherents. When "oughtness" is brought into the picture, the activity-analysis procedure tends to bog down, for the activities which people *ought* to perform may not exist at any given time; hence, they could not be discovered by analysis. There have been many attempts to meet this criticism, such as the selection of the "best" citizens and making an analysis of their activities; securing the judgment of "frontier thinkers" on what activities the good citizen *ought* to perform, and obtaining the consensus of opinion of large numbers of people on appropriate activities. Undoubtedly these techniques yield valuable data for the curriculum maker but cannot be relied upon as an all-inclusive and complete technique for curriculum making. In the second place, assuming that such an analysis of human activity *could* be made, society is changing so rapidly that it would be out-of-date by the time it was completed. It should be pointed out, too, that even though such an analysis could be made, the resulting curriculum would be adult-centered rather than student-centered.

While no one has succeeded in analyzing all of the activities in which people engage, to say nothing of the activities in which they *ought* to engage, the technique has proved exceedingly valuable in analyzing certain segments of experience—particularly in the vocational field. Charters pioneered in this field and applied the technique in such fields as nursing education, pharmacy, stenography, teacher education,⁴ and the like. It has also been used to determine what ought to be taught in given subject fields.⁵

⁴ See W. W. Charters and Douglas Waples, *The Commonwealth Teacher Training Study*. Chicago, The University of Chicago Press, 1929.

⁵ See W. W. Charters, *op. cit.*, Part II, for an excellent survey of studies in curriculum making in various subject fields.

For a modern application of the use of this procedure see George Louis Brandon, *An Appraisal of the Preparation of Industrial Education Supervisors in Ohio Colleges for Teacher Education*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Columbus, Ohio, The Ohio State University, 1952.

The activity-analysis procedure succeeded in sensitizing the curriculum maker to the need for examining curriculum materials from the standpoint of their actual function in human activities. In this way, he succeeded in eliminating from the curriculum much material that could be justified only on the basis of an outworn psychology or of tradition. As we examine current procedures in curriculum making, we shall see that its influence continues to be felt. In general, we may say that it was a step forward in curriculum making when viewed in the perspective of the past. Activity analysis is still an important tool in curriculum reorganization.

There are two present-day movements in curriculum reorganization that are worthy of rather careful consideration. The first procedure has been designated by various terms such as the "Social-Functions," the "Social-Demands," "Areas of Living," and "Scope-and-Sequence" procedure. The second has become known as the "Adolescent-Needs," or Adolescent Problems procedure. By some they are regarded as antithetical, but it will be shown later that they have very much in common, and may lead to similar curriculum practices and organizations.

THE SOCIAL-FUNCTIONS PROCEDURE

Determining Philosophy. This procedure dominated the curriculum-reorganization field during the decade from 1930 to 1940. The extent to which it will continue to do so is problematical. However, because of its widespread use, it will be given rather extensive treatment at this point. Basic to this procedure is the formulation of a guiding philosophy of education. This may take any number of forms, but in general consists of setting up the purposes of education in the light of (1) the ideals of democratic living, (2) the nature of the individual, (3) the nature of learning, and (4) the role of the particular school.

Determining Scope. The next step after having determined the philosophy or purposes is to agree upon a basic classification of the major "functions" or areas of living. This plan of determining scope seems to have been utilized first by W. W. Charters, who made an analysis of the activities of women at Stephens College in 1921. The first thoroughgoing plan for applying it to the curriculum

of the secondary schools was made in Virginia under the direction of Caswell and Campbell in 1934.⁶

What is a social function of living? According to the above-mentioned authors, "study of group life shows that there are certain major centers about which the activities of individuals and the plans and problems of the group tend to cluster. These centers, which may be referred to as social functions, tend to persist and to be common for all organized groups. For example, certain of the activities of primitive tribes tended to center around protection of the lives and properties of the members of the group. In group life today protection of life and property continues to be an important function about which many activities cluster and from which a group of related problems and issues arises. Since these centers or social functions represent points about which real life activities tend to gather and organize, it is considered reasonable that a curriculum which is concerned with guiding children into effective participation in the activities of real life may use these social functions or points of emphasis and orientation in outlining the curriculum."⁷ Perhaps the best way to clarify the functions of living is to present the following list adopted by the State of Virginia as a basis for its curriculum: (1) protection and conservation of life, property, and natural resources, (2) production of goods and services and distribution of the returns of production, (3) consumption of goods and services, (4) communication and transportation of goods and people, (5) recreation, (6) expression of aesthetic impulses, (7) expression of religious impulses, (8) education, (9) extension of freedom, (10) integration of the individual, and (11) exploration.

Following the lead of Virginia, many attempts have been made to determine the major functions or areas of living. How shall this be done? Obviously, it calls for some such analyses as those proposed by Bobbitt and Charters. The difficulties of making such

⁶ See H. L. Caswell and D. S. Campbell, *Curriculum Development*. New York, The American Book Company, 1935, pp. 173-186. Also Henry Harap, ed., *The Changing Curriculum*. Copyright, 1937, by D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., New York. *Tentative Course of Study for Virginia Elementary Schools*, Richmond, State Board of Education, 1934.

⁷ Caswell and Campbell; *op. cit.*, pp. 173-174.

analyses have been pointed out earlier. When we consider that the "functions of living" are to be universal, in the sense that they apply to all cultures past and present, the task of *direct* analysis is impossible. Hence, some shortcut is needed. Two of these will be discussed in order to see just how categories of social functions or areas are derived by the curriculum maker.

Henry Harap set up criteria for examining lists of categories, and for determining their suitability for curriculum making. They are as follows:

(1) Do the categories relate to living, or are they external to the individual? (2) Are the categories easily broken down into units of learning experience? (3) Do the categories parallel definite areas of living as distinguished from mere adult abstractions? (4) When actually applied, do the categories anticipate bodies of experience as contrasted with traditional subjects? (5) Do the categories reflect the learner's organization of learning experience, are they meaningful to the learner? (6) Do the categories consistently lend themselves to the development of a series of goal-seeking experiences? (7) Do the categories have tangible limits in time and space to a large degree? (8) Do the categories represent a coherent and balanced sampling of social living? ⁸

Harap applied these criteria to thirty lists of classifications of areas of living and concluded that the following list met them most satisfactorily:

(1) Living in the Home, (2) Leisure, (3) Citizenship, (4) Organized Group Life, (5) Consumption, (6) Production, (7) Communication and (8) Transportation.

O. I. Frederick ⁹ directed a study of the same problem but with a somewhat different technique. He selected thirty-eight "classifications of human activities." These were chosen from formulations of curriculum-making groups, sociologists, anthropologists, "intelligent American club women," and writers of "ideal commonwealths." A

⁸ Henry Harap, *op. cit.*, p. 95.

⁹ O. I. Frederick, *et al.*, *Areas of Human Activity and Problems of Life* (mimeographed). Jackson, Mississippi State Department of Education, 1937. See also O. I. Frederick, and Lucile J. Farquhar, "Areas of Human Activity," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXX, 672-679 (May, 1937).

frequency count of the various areas included by each writer was made, and it was found that the “*universal types of activity*, activities in which men have always engaged and probably always will be engaged,” could be classified into nine areas, as follows: (1) protecting life and health, (2) securing a living, (3) making a home, (4) expressing religious impulses, (5) expressing aesthetic impulses, (6) securing education, (7) cooperating in social and civic action, (8) engaging in recreation, and (9) conserving and improving material conditions.

In order to determine whether or not these nine areas included “all vital problems of human activity,” an analysis was made of forty-four recent books dealing with trends and problems of contemporary life. This reading yielded 349 problems and needs of human life, which were classified under the nine areas of human activity. Space does not permit the listing of all of these problems and needs of living. However, in order that the reader may get the general flavor of the entire list, the major problems under the first area, *Protecting Life and Health*, are listed. They are as follows: (1) making the school environment more healthful and safe, (2) cooperating with health agencies for a more healthful community, (3) practicing habits of personal hygiene, (4) preventing and controlling disease, (5) protecting life from accidents, (6) securing and maintaining mental and emotional health, (7) protecting the consumer from fraudulent and harmful medical goods and services, (8) developing an adequate medical service for all persons at reasonable cost, (9) promoting and utilizing medical research, (10) conserving and increasing the racial vitality of the American people.¹⁰

These problems are to serve as the basis for the curriculum. The use of the nine areas of human activity guarantees that each individual will participate in all the significant areas of living, and the use of the problems will facilitate an acquaintance with the problems of contemporary living. On this point the committee writes: “At different grade levels, the problems would be used in different

¹⁰ O. I. Frederick and Lucile J. Farquhar, “Problems of Life,” *School Review*, XLVI, 337-345, 415-422 (May and June, 1938) pp. 341-342.

ways by the teacher. In the elementary grades only the broad, general aspects would be advisable. High-school pupils, on the contrary, would be interested in depth as well as breadth and so would go into these problems in detailed fashion."

Out of more than a score of possible lists of "human activities" that have been utilized in curriculum making, we shall present only two additional ones. These are selected because they are still playing a significant role in curriculum reorganization programs. The Kansas State Program¹¹ is based upon the following areas: (1) protecting human and material resources, (2) making a living, (3) producing and distributing goods and services, (4) making a home (largely consumption), (5) governing the group, (6) providing and expressing recreational, aesthetic, and religious impulses, (7) providing education, and (8) developing and controlling communication and transportation. These eight areas of living are derived from the "list of major areas of human activity" developed by Frederick and others for the State of Mississippi. The universal character of the list is emphasized. The bulletin states that "certain problems of living in each of these areas persist through all ages. Each generation meets them conditioned by the characteristics of the current age. Education should help each generation to solve these persisting problems. The school shall provide opportunity for pupils to become sensitive to and gain understanding about them."¹² For purposes of comparison with a state program, the Santa Barbara, California, list is herewith presented: "(1) developing and conserving personal resources, (2) developing and conserving other than personal resources, (3) producing, distributing, and consuming goods and services, (4) communicating, (5) transporting, (6) recreation and playing, (7) expressing and satisfying spiritual and aesthetic needs, and (8) organizing and governing."¹³ As in the

¹¹ *The Kansas Program for the Improvement of Instruction*. Bulletin No. 6. Topeka, Kansas State Department of Education, 1939. This program has been widely studied and utilized by curriculum reorganization groups, even though, according to a report of the State Department of Education, it has never been in general use in the schools of Kansas.

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 16.

¹³ *Experimental Curriculum in the Santa Barbara City Schools*. Bulletin I, Revision No. I. Santa Barbara, Board of Education, 1941, p. 21.

Virginia, Mississippi, and Kansas programs, these areas are the "basic functions of human living common to all cultures regardless of time or place."

In the preceding section, a survey of some of the leading classifications of social functions, or areas of living, was made. It was shown that they are quite similar, differing principally in the manner of grouping, and in wording. Essentially they are all derived from the same general sources and serve the same general purposes in curriculum making. What are the basic assumptions that underlie them and what are the purposes which they serve?

The subject-centered curriculum provides for scope through the various subjects. Each subject is composed of logically organized facts, principles, and generalizations that are peculiar to it. The range of subjects offered and the content of each subject define the scope of the curriculum. Obviously, the curriculum maker has in mind some idea of the essential areas of human activity and tries to cover them by the inclusion of a wide variety of subjects. The curriculum movement described above simply makes the areas of living more explicit and more central. This is necessary because most of the programs which are described break more or less with the subject-centered point of view. To the extent that they discard separate subjects as a basis for determining curriculum content (scope), there is need for some structure or framework for the curriculum. The "areas of human activity" provide that structure.

As a reaction from the traditional subject-centered program, there is a strong emphasis upon the contemporary, upon actual problems of present-day living. But upon what problems? There is need for some device for helping to answer this question. The coverage should be complete. In order to guarantee that no major problem shall be neglected, categories that embrace *all* the areas of human activity are set up. Insofar as is possible, all levels of instruction and all areas are expected to include activities that have a bearing upon all the areas of human activity that are established. This does not mean that every daily assignment or unit of work shall include

all areas, but it does mean that in a given grade, a subject should be so organized as to include them. Later we shall see how this is provided for. It would be fair to say then that, in addition to this general definition of scope, the "areas-of-living" procedure attempts to guarantee a balanced curriculum in which there is a maximum of breadth and a minimum of overlapping.

A third justification of this basis of curriculum reorganization is that it provides the teacher who breaks with the subject-centered curriculum with a sense of security. It stimulates him to launch out on relatively uncharted seas, secure in the belief that if he steers his course with reference to the major areas of human activity he will eventually arrive at his destination. In the subject-centered curriculum, he finds security in covering the prescribed ground. He now finds it by exploring all of the important areas of living. Even if he continues to teach subjects, he has a way of checking the completeness of his subject matter.

Certain basic assumptions concerning this program of curriculum development may be made at this point. First of all, there is the assumption that *the problems of the adult world provide the fundamental basis for the curriculum*. The job of the curriculum maker is to know what they are in any given time and locality, and then to find the aspects of these problems which are appropriate to any particular age or grade level. Through the solution of these problems, the child at his own level of development becomes oriented to the adult world and achieves the attitudes, understandings, skills, and abilities which define good citizenship in the culture.

Another assumption is that, while the universal character of the major functions of living is stressed in most formulations, they derive their meaning and significance from the contemporary scene. "Getting a living," for example, is a wholly different problem in America at the present stage of technological development from what it was one hundred years ago. Hence, the emphasis must be placed upon the peculiar and distinctive character of living at the present time in our democratic culture. The assumption, therefore, is that *the universal areas of living will be analyzed in terms of the*

crucial problems of contemporary adult life. The extent to which such an analysis is made varied with the program, but without it, the "areas of living" concept becomes almost useless. (It will be shown later how this analysis functions in the curriculum-reorganization program.)

Determining Sequence. Obviously, if we neglect the problem of sequence and think of the curriculum merely in terms of the several "areas of living," perhaps logically organized, we would not be far along the road of educational reform. We would merely have another set of "subjects." They would perhaps be more functional than traditional subjects but the principle of organization would be much the same. What is needed is a new concept of sequence, and this the curriculum maker seeks to provide by various means. The most common procedure is to establish a "center of interest" for each grade or age level. Sometimes two or more grades may be combined for this purpose, as we shall see. Since the Virginia Program set the stage for many schools that use the particular type of curriculum development under discussion, the centers of interest in that program are listed. While this discussion is concerned principally with the secondary level, the elementary level is included in order to make clear the general continuity from grade to grade.

Grade I. Home and School Life.

Grade II. Community Life.

Grade III. Adaptation to Environmental Forces of Nature.

Grade IV. Adaptation of Life to Advancing Physical Frontiers.

Grade V. Effects of Inventions and Discoveries upon Our Living.

Grade VI. Effect of Machine Production upon Our Living.

Grade VII. Social Provisions for Cooperative Living.

Grade VIII. Adaptation of Our Living through Nature, Social and Mechanical Inventions, and Discoveries.

Grade IX. Agrarianism and Industrialism, and Their Effects upon Our Living.

Grade X. Effects of Changing Culture and Changing Social Institutions upon Our Living.

Grade XI. Effects of a Continuously Planning Social Order upon Our Living.

The Santa Barbara sequence is as follows:

- Kindergarten and Grade I. Growth in effective living through *self-adjustment within the immediate environment*.
- Grade II. Growth in effective living through *adjustment to our community*.
- Grade III. Growth in effective living by further adjustment to the community through the development of insights into the manner in which the *natural and controlled environment* is contributing to life in our community.
- Grade IV. Growth in effective living by further adjustment to the community through the development of insights into the manner in which the *present culture groups* are adjusting to life in *our community*.
- Grade V. Growth in effective living through the development of insights into the manner in which *present as compared with former culture-groups* carry on the basic functions of human living in *Santa Barbara and California*
- Grade VI. Growth in effective living through problem-centered experiences directed toward understanding how modern techniques are being utilized in carrying out the basic functions of human living in *the United States*
- Grade VII. Growth in effective living through problem-centered experiences directed toward understanding the *interdependence of individuals in our school, our community, the regions of our Nation, and in the countries of our American neighbors*.
- Grade VIII. Growth in effective living through problem-centered experiences directed toward understanding *how man's courage, knowledge, discoveries, and inventions have affected his way of living*.
- Grade IX. Growth in effective living through problem-centered experiences directed toward understanding and appreciating the individual's *privileges and responsibilities as an American citizen*.
- Grade X. Growth in effective living through problem-centered experiences directed toward happy and effective *personal, spiritual, social, recreational, and vocational living in the home, school, and community*
- Grade XI and XII. Growth in effective living through problem-centered experiences directed toward achieving the highest possible quality of human experiences through *striving for social, political, and economic democracy in its local, state, and national setting, and for peace and cooperation on the international scene*¹⁴

¹⁴ *Experimental Curriculum in the Santa Barbara City Schools*. Bulletin No. I, Revision No. I. Santa Barbara, Santa Barbara City Schools, 1941, 22-24. (Italics in original.)

Marked similarities will be observed between the centers of interest chosen for emphasis in the Virginia Program and the Santa Barbara curriculum discussed above. Both lists are somewhat similar also to the formulations worked out in other programs, such as those of Mississippi and California.¹⁵

Sources of Centers of Interest. Theoretically, centers of interest are arrived at through an analysis of the needs, interests, and abilities of students at various age or grade levels. We have seen, however, that there is much confusion in the meaning of needs. Are the immediate felt needs of students to be analyzed, or the needs as seen by adults? Apparently both of these interpretations enter somewhat into the determination of centers of interest. The curriculum maker is committed to the principle that the student is to be oriented to the problems of adult living as classified in each area of human activity. It follows then that curriculum materials must be found at each age or grade level that will contribute to such an orientation. Otherwise the whole basic structure of the proposed curriculum collapses. At this point the emphasis upon *ability* enters the picture. The proposed center of interest and curriculum materials related to it must be within the ability of the student. That is, he must be able to master them. Obviously he should also be interested in them if optimal learning is to be secured. The extent to which felt needs and interests are sacrificed depends upon how important the curriculum maker believes areas of human activity to be. Examination of curriculum materials from various schools using this plan reveals that the demand for understanding of the "forces" or problems which give meaning to the

¹⁵ See O. I. Frederick and Lucile J. Farquear, "Areas of Human Activity," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXX, 672-679 (May 1937), and O. I. Frederick and L. P. Musslewhite, "Centers of Emphasis for Grades One Through Twelve," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXXII, 123-129 (October 1938). *Mississippi Program for the Improvement of Instruction*. Bulletin Nos. 5 and 6. Jackson, State Department of Education, 1937-1939. *Georgia Program for the Improvement of Instruction*. Bulletin No. 2. Atlanta, State Department of Education, 1942. Helen Heffernan, "Second Report of the Committee on Scope and Sequence of Major Learnings in the Curriculum," *California Schools*, VIII, 216-230 (July, 1936).

areas of human activity is a more significant factor in determining curriculum materials than present needs or interest. The centers of interest proposed by Virginia and Santa Barbara are not, in the opinion of the author, revealed by any thoroughgoing study of the needs and interests of children. For example, the Virginia curriculum proposes that "community life" be made the center of interest for the second grade. Common sense tells us that certain aspects of community life are of interest at every grade level, for certain stresses and strains that originate in the life of the community impinge upon the student at every stage of growth. What, then, is the justification of making it the center of interest for the second grade? The same situation exists with reference to every center of interest proposed. We are then forced to the conclusion that the sequence of learning experiences implied by these centers of interest is not to be taken too seriously. In general, the proposed sequences are based upon certain assumptions such as (1) learning should proceed from the simple to the complex, from the immediate to the remote, from the concrete to the abstract, on the ground that the learner becomes increasingly capable of dealing with abstract ideas as he matures physically, intellectually, and emotionally, (2) that learning should proceed toward a refinement of social ideals. We may grant all these assumptions, however, and still reject the conclusions that are reached with reference to suitable centers of interest for each grade or age level.

Even though we may reject the psychological basis for these centers of interest, we must admit that they do give definiteness to the curriculum and facilitate the planning of the work of each grade so as to avoid overlapping and gaps. The establishment of a more or less fixed sequence also gives a sense of security to the teacher who is breaking away from logical organization of subjects as a basis for determining sequence. With all of the difficulties involved in the centers-of-interest technique, it is undoubtedly better than the traditional plan. In practice, the intelligent teacher will not be enslaved by the center of interest prescribed for his students but will use it merely as a point of departure.

Steps in the Social-Functions Procedure. The various steps in the development of a social-functions curriculum which have been discussed may be summarized as follows:

1. Formulate a philosophy of education, which should include an analysis of the various objectives which the school seeks to attain.
2. Decide upon the major areas of living, either by accepting a formulation worked out by others or as the result of research.
3. Discover the major problems, forces, or needs of society that belong to each area of living.
4. Make a study of the characteristics of adolescents at each level of development (or accept a formulation already made).
5. Upon the basis of (a) the objectives of education, (b) the areas of human activity, and (c) the characteristics of adolescents, decide upon appropriate centers of interest for each grade or age level.
6. Determine the type of curriculum organization.
7. Plan units of work related to the centers of interest and appropriate to the needs, interests, and abilities of the various groups, which are significant for attaining the objectives, and which orient the student in the major areas of human activity.
8. Set up a plan for evaluating the outcomes.

The Organization of the "Social-Functions" Curriculum. As has been discussed, the procedure for developing the scope and sequence of the curriculum by means of analyses of the areas of living and the needs, abilities, and interests of youth has been designed to free the school from the formalism of the subject-centered curriculum. It is to be expected, then, that the curriculum would be organized so as to implement this idea. To this end, most of the schools using this procedure provide for some sort of a core curriculum. One illustration will suffice to indicate how this is done.¹⁶

Virginia Program. In the eighth grade, four out of a total of seven periods per day are allotted to the core. The remainder of the school day is given over to physical education, out-of-class activities, and electives. During the four periods of the core (time may be set aside for dealing with special phases of mathematics), learning

¹⁶ See *Manual of Administration for High Schools of Virginia* (Tentative edition). Richmond, Virginia State Board of Education, 1937, pp. 65-68.

activities include material from social studies, language, arts, science, and mathematics. In the ninth grade, core time is cut to three periods and provides for instruction in social studies, language arts, and science. (Note that mathematics is not included). The remainder of the school day is given over to physical education, out-of-class activities, and electives. Presumably the electives are taught as separate subjects, but in terms of the same general principles of scope and sequence that operate in the core.

It will be noted that the core-curriculum organization described above breaks with logical organization of subjects. However, it does not break with *subjects*. It unifies certain subjects in terms of broad problems. Usually social science is the center of this unification, with science and language playing significant roles. In general, this program conforms to the definition of the unified subject-centered core (Type Four) given in Chapter VI.

Utilizing the Social Functions Approach in the Improvement of Subjects. There is no reason why this approach needs to be confined to a core-type curriculum. The teacher of science may, for example, utilize the areas of living and centers of interest for enriching science experiences. The systematic application of the procedure would undoubtedly modify significantly both the scope and sequence of science subject matter. Were this to be done, the textbook could no longer be closely followed, for the problems developed would have to meet the criterion of student interests and at the same time bear a close relationship to the persistent problems in the various areas of living. In some schools, the scope and sequence chart, a schematic organization of the areas of living in a horizontal column, and the suggested emphases at each grade level in vertical columns, is given a conspicuous place in each classroom. The teacher uses it as a check of his program. He may thereby determine whether or not his work contributes significantly to the problems in the various areas of living and is consistent with the emphases upon student interests, abilities, and problems provided for in the suggested sequence.

It should be pointed out, too, that with a liberal interpretation of this plan of curriculum reorganization, provision can be made

for utilizing many first-hand experiences. The Kansas Plan particularly offers rich possibilities along this line.

In concluding the discussion of the social-functions approach, it may be stated that the plan provides a unique and significant way of resolving the age-old conflict between the adult-centered and the child-centered curriculum. The general scope is determined by the problems of adult living. The sequence is controlled by student needs, abilities, and interests. In this manner, both present living and preparation for future living are encompassed in the program. While emphases vary considerably among the various schools, it is probably fair to state that the adult-living aspect tends to dominate the curriculum, for it provides the basic framework for determining suitable learning activities.

What is the future of this procedure in curriculum development? It dominated the field in the late Thirties and early Forties. However, the programs that evolved from it have, in general, not survived. It would be difficult to find a current curriculum program that utilized *exclusively* the procedures which have been analyzed in its development. Only remnants of the Virginia, Santa Barbara, and Kansas programs are to be found—and most of these are at the elementary, rather than the high-school level. Why is this the case? We can only speculate on the answer. Perhaps the programs were ahead of their time. Teachers were not ready to launch out on a drastically reorganized program. Perhaps they were dominated too much “from the top” rather than being “grass-roots” movements. Perhaps they were too wide in scope. It may not be possible or even desirable to try to move an entire state or city program at one time. Caswell, who was the recognized leader in developing and popularizing the Social Functions procedure has made some interesting comments on this point. He puts it this way:

In the beginning of the curriculum movement it was assumed that changes from an old to a new curriculum could be achieved at a given time throughout a school system. It was customary to speak of two stages in a curriculum program—production, which referred to preparation of new courses of study, and installation, which referred to putting them into

use. . . . It was expected that all teachers would initiate the new curriculum at the same time. . . .

As experience in curriculum programs increased, the concept of change on a "uniform front" was one of the points at which radical modification occurred. . . . Thus there developed the conception of change on a "broken front." This recognized that modifications in practice have small beginnings, with a few teachers taking the lead in the difficult process of testing new ideas. As new practices are demonstrated to be feasible, more teachers take over their use. . . . Curriculum improvement is fostered by encouraging and aiding teachers to develop innovating practices and then by facilitating the spread of those found feasible.¹⁷

Probably a sharp line cannot be drawn between the "uniform" and "broken front" conceptions. The size of the unit, the leadership, the readiness for change and the procedures by which change is brought about may be more important than the nature of the front. Then too, a program may start as a broken front and become a uniform one in a short time—again depending upon conditions.

THE ADOLESCENT PROBLEMS PROCEDURE IN CURRICULUM REORGANIZATION

This procedure came into prominence during the *Eight-Year Study* (1932–40). Significant it is that none of the schools included in this study adopted the Social Functions procedure in bringing about curriculum reorganization, even though it was the most widely acclaimed procedure at that time. The Virginia Program was getting under way and was much publicized. The other state and city programs discussed in the previous section were also in process of development. Why then didn't the Eighth-Year Study schools follow suit? The answer is to be found primarily in the leadership of that study. It was sponsored by the Progressive Education Association which had long waged war upon the adult-centered curriculum. Here was an opportunity, under controlled conditions, to

¹⁷ H. L. Caswell and Associates, *Curriculum Improvement in Public-School Systems*. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1950. Copyright 1950, by Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, pp. 51–52, *passim*. Most of the programs described in this book are of the "broken-front" type.

experiment with a conception of curriculum making that was grounded in the Experimentalist philosophy of Dewey, Kilpatrick, and Bode, and which placed youth at the center. The Commission on the Secondary School Curriculum was established for the purpose of aiding the schools in curriculum development, and Vivian T. Thayer, then Director of the Ethical Culture Schools, was made chairman. This Commission worked closely with the Commission on the Relation of School and College under the dynamic leadership of Wilford Aikin, who had been head of the John Burroughs School in Clayton, Mo.

It is inappropriate at this point to discuss the programs of the schools.¹⁸ That has been done in other connections. The important point is that the so-called Adolescent-Needs procedure had beginnings in this study, under the impetus of the work of the Commission on the Secondary-School Curriculum. The needs concept, explained in Chapter IV became the basis of a conception of curriculum development that has continued to influence curriculum reorganization to the present time.

What are the steps in this procedure as it has developed? It is impossible of course to generalize because different schools approach the problem in widely different ways. It is possible, however, to set forth in more or less logical order the steps that are most common.

Formulating the Philosophy and Purposes of the School. This step might be carried out in a number of ways. Obviously the statement would contain an emphasis upon the ideals of the society, and particularly upon the importance of considering the needs, problems, and interests of the student. A group would not be likely to adopt this procedure unless it was committed to a needs or problems approach to curriculum development.

¹⁸ See Wilford Aikin, *The Story of the Eight-Year Study* New York, Harper and Brothers, 1941 *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story*, New York, Harper and Brothers, 1943. See particularly the Denver, Tulsa, Horace Mann, Lincoln, and The Ohio State University School Programs. See also Frederick Rehofer, "The Eight-Year Study—After Eight Years," *Progressive Education*, XXVIII, 33-36 (November 1950).

Determining the Common Needs or Problems of Students. Here the common practice is to make a study of the literature of the field of adolescent development.¹⁹ Such studies, however, need to be supplemented by local studies through the use of various means, the most common of which is the checklist or questionnaire. A problems checklist that has been used rather extensively has been developed by Ross Mooney and others.²⁰

Three hundred and thirty problems were classified under eleven areas, as follows: (1) Health and Physical Development, (2) Finances, Living Conditions, and Employment, (3) Social and Recreational Activities, (4) Courtship, Sex, and Marriage, (5) Social-Psychological Relations, (6) Personal-Psychological Relations, (7) Morals and Religion, (8) Home and Family, (9) The Future: Vocational and Educational, (10) Adjustment to School Work, and (11) Curriculum and Teaching Procedures. In the first area are included: being underweight, being overweight, not getting enough exercise, tiring too early, frequent illnesses, frequent headaches, weak eyes, lack of appetite, digestive troubles, not getting proper diet, not as strong and healthy as I should be, not enough outdoor air and sunshine, poor complexion, frequent colds, poor teeth, poor posture, being clumsy and awkward, too short, too tall, not very attractive physically, physical handicap, afraid I may need an operation, frequent sore throat, menstrual disorders, not enough sleep, nose or sinus trouble, poor hearing, smoking, speech handicaps, and foot trouble or ill-fitting shoes. The application of this checklist shows wide diversity among high-school students. Some students check very few problems while others check a great many. In the Stephens-Lee Survey,²¹ 98 out of the 330 problems were checked by 10 per cent or more of the students. Problems involving

¹⁹ See Chapter IV for reports of the results of many of these studies.

²⁰ Separate forms of this checklist for junior-high school, the senior-high school and college have been developed. They are distributed by the Psychological Corporation of America.

²¹ See Ross Mooney, "Surveying High-School Students' Problems by Means of a Problems Checklist," *Educational Research Bulletin* (Ohio State University), XXI, 57-69 (March 18, 1942).

personal-psychological relations were checked by the greatest number of students. Problems involving morals and religion and home and family were lowest on the list.

This checklist, as has been pointed out, was made up of the actual problems that high-school students mention when they talk or write about their "worries" or concerns. The results of its use are conditioned by the fact that many students are not conscious of their problems. Hence, the problems *not* checked by a student are often as revealing as are the problems that he checks. Another conditioning factor is that students often are hesitant about revealing to teachers the personal problems that seem to them to be most significant. Used intelligently, however, such a checklist undoubtedly has great value to the teacher in understanding the student and helping him to plan his curriculum.

A Check List on Youth Problems has been developed by Irving Starr of Boston University. This list consists of 300 items, and contains such problems as the following:

My parents treat me like a child.
I don't have many friends.
I don't have a date for the prom.
How will the draft affect me?
Should I go steady?
I don't know how to concentrate.
How can I develop my body?
I can't get the family car.
Some people laugh at me for being religious.
Financial problems have broken up my family life.
I have no place at home to entertain my friends.
I wonder what people think of me.
My father is stubborn and strict.

Subject to the limitations of all checklists, data of the kind which this list calls for would undoubtedly be of considerable value to a school interested in curriculum reorganization.

The Ohio State University School²² utilized the "problems" tech-

²² Committee on Problems Study, *An Inventory Study of the Personal and General Social Problems of 256 Students in Grades Seven to Twelve, Inclusive*. Columbus, The Ohio State University School, 1940.

nique for studying the students of that school. A committee of the staff prepared its own checklist derived from various sources. The graduating seniors were asked to list the ten most crucial individual and social problems which face young people. Samplings were made of students' problems at various levels. The faculty, together with a large group of adults, also prepared lists of what they considered to be the crucial problems of young people. A master list of problems was then made up under the following categories: (1) Family, (2) Vocation, (3) Pupil-Teacher Relationships, (4) Our School, (5) Self-discipline, Mental Hygiene, and Health, (6) Planning Work and Budgeting Time, (7) Religion, (8) General Social Relationships, (9) Sex, (10) Out-of-School Matters, (11) Skills, (12) College, (13) War, Peace, and Patriotism, (14) Social, Economic, and Political Organization, and (15) Miscellaneous Aspects of Citizenship. To illustrate the nature of the problems presented, the various problems under Category No. 1 (The Family) are listed: getting along with brothers and sisters, making arrangements with parents so as to drive the car, arranging dates so that parents are not displeased, selecting a college to the satisfaction of parents and myself, adjusting to separation from parents or close relative for long period, learning to carry fair share of the family responsibilities (housework, spending only fair share of money, etc.), how to show appreciation of what my parents have done for me, preparing for marriage and family life, the extent to which parents should dominate our lives, the extent to which children should break away from parents, and adjusting to friends who come from families with different social habits or standards.

The conclusions resulting from the use of this inventory indicate that there are wide differences in problems from grade to grade; that no one problem or group of problems is applicable to any one grade; that at the lower levels the emphasis is upon personal, immediate problems, whereas in the higher grades (eleven and twelve) there is a marked increase in interest about world affairs and the responsibility of the individual for them; that there is little or no interest in religious problems at any level.

The results of this study, together with a study of child develop-

ment²³ were utilized as bases for the development of problem areas for the core program.²⁴

Other procedures which schools might use include case studies, interviews, questionnaires to parents, and day-to-day-classroom observations. The proposed studies should result in a formulation of needs or problems which would be supported by national studies of adolescents in general, and which would, at the same time, be adapted to the particular school.

Establishing and Organizing Problem Areas. How to move from a program of determining needs or problems, or studying the processes of development, to a program for incorporating these findings into a curriculum is a difficult problem—one which is not yet completely solved.

The crux of the problem is this: Whereas it is possible to establish broad generalizations concerning adolescent behavior, to determine the broad problems which adolescents are likely to face as they grow up, and to define the needs or developmental tasks for large groups of adolescents, it is almost impossible to apply these findings, ready-made to any individual or class, for there is such wide variation in the precise expression of a need or task and in the definition of the problems of an individual or group. To presume to be able to do so is a negation of the dynamic concept of the learner and his environment. Furthermore, to impose a series of fixed problems upon youth would perpetuate the ills of the logically organized subject curriculum from which schools are trying to escape.

A common way of solving this knotty problem is to establish problem areas. A problem area is defined as a broad category of human living in which adolescents *usually* have problems. The particular categories utilized may result from an attempt to classify the needs or problems, or tasks discovered in the previous step, into some workable curricular areas. More frequently they are set up empirically by groups using criteria of their own choosing, such as: What areas are suggested by the purposes of the school? What areas are

²³ See *How Children Develop*, Faculty of the University School. Columbus, Ohio, The Ohio State University, 1946.

²⁴ For a list of these areas, see Chapter VI.

implied by the known general developmental problems of youth? What areas are essential in terms of the "realities" or demands of the culture?

The following formulation of problem areas for a core program was made by Van Til.²⁵ He justifies his areas on the grounds that they were called for by the philosophy of democracy, the psychological needs of youth, and social realities. These are the areas:

1. Choosing, Buying and Using Goods and Services
2. Keeping Healthy
3. Home, School and Friends
4. Ways of Living of Other Lands
5. Recreation and Leisure
6. Getting an Education
7. Racial, Religious, Ethnic and Social Economic Relationships
8. Personal Development and Psychological Understanding
9. Proposed Roads for the Domestic Economy
10. War
11. Organization of the Peace
12. Propaganda and Public Opinion
13. Labor, Management and Government
14. Vocations and Jobs
15. World Views ²⁶

In 1949, Lurry set up a rather elaborate set of criteria ²⁷ for determining problem areas for a core program. They are as follows:

A problem area should:

1. Represent persistent problems of a personal-social nature common to adolescents in our culture.
2. Be adapted to the maturity level of the group.
3. Provide experiences for growth in terms of such values as tolerance,

²⁵ William Van Til, *A Social Living Curriculum for Postwar Secondary Education*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation. Columbus, Ohio, The Ohio State University, 1946.

²⁶ See also William Van Til, "Consumer Problems of the High-School Student," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXVIII, 79-86 (November 1944).

²⁷ Lucile L. Lurry, *The Contributions of Home Economics to Selected Areas in the Core Curriculum of the Secondary School*. Unpublished Doctoral Study. Columbus, Ohio. The Ohio State University, 1949.

social sensitivity, co-operativeness, civic competence, aesthetic appreciations, self-direction, and critical thinking.

4. Encourage the use of the problem-solving technique to attack problems in all areas of living.
5. Provide opportunity for co-operative planning in the group, i.e., teacher-pupil, teacher-teacher, and pupil-pupil planning.
6. Provide opportunity for generalization beyond the experience of adolescents.
7. Provide opportunity for meaningful direct experiences and the enrichment of vicarious experiences by utilizing a wide variety of resources in men, materials, and techniques.
8. Provide for the integration of knowledge through the use of subject-matter as it bears upon the problem at hand.
9. Provide experiences which develop continuity in the emotional, intellectual, and physical aspects of the learning process.
10. Provide opportunity for the individual and group-guidance functions of teaching, to become an integral part of the curriculum.
11. Guide the interests of individuals into the various special-interest areas.
12. Lead to other meaningful learning experiences, suggest new problem areas.

Lurry then submitted a tentative list of problem areas to nationally known educators and as a result of the combined judgments of this group, formulated the following problem areas:

1. *Problems of School Living:* How can we get most out of our school experiences?
2. *Problems of Self-Understanding:* How can we know more about ourselves?
3. *Problems of Finding Values by Which We Live:* What means most to us and why?
4. *Problems of Social Relationships in a Democracy:* What is our responsibility (individual and group) in facing and helping to solve the social problems of our community, state, and nation?
5. *Problems of Employment and Vocation:* What are our opportunities for employment in the community now?
6. *Problems of Using and Conserving Natural Resources:* How can our natural resources be best developed and used?
7. *Problems of Education in American Democracy:* Why is education an important factor in our lives as citizens of a democracy?
8. *Problems of Constructive Use of Leisure:* How can we become more

interesting and better adjusted people through extending individual and group interests?

9. *Problems of Family Living:* How can family living make for happier individuals?
10. *Problems of Communication:* How can we express our ideas more clearly to others, and how can we understand better the ideas of other people?
11. *Problems of Democratic Government:* How do we share in government in a democracy?
12. *Problems of Community and Personal Health:* How can we achieve and maintain healthful living for ourselves and all others in the community?
13. *Problems of Economic Relationships in a Democracy:* How can we become more intelligent consumers? How does the pattern of economic life relate to the ideal of democratic economic participation of all?
14. *Problems of Critical Thinking* How can we develop skill in forming conclusions? What are the sources of information? What is a sound basis for forming conclusions?
15. *Problems of Achieving World Peace in the Atomic Age:* What are the contributions we can make toward world peace? How does atomic energy affect our living today?
16. *Problems of Intercultural Relations* What are the factors involved in living democratically with many diverse social groups? What is our individual group responsibility in becoming aware of and helping to decrease intercultural tensions?²⁸

Each of these problem areas was broken down into a list of "problems and activities." This procedure is illustrated by the following analysis of *Area Three—Problems of Finding Values by which We Live*.

What means most to us in life and why? Includes such problems and activities as: (1) Considering what we value most and why; (b) Exploring the various sources of our values; (c) Studying the great religions; (d) Understanding the basic tenets of the major conflicting ideologies; (e) Achieving values we cherish in a democracy; (f) Developing skill in using intelligence to arrive at values in all areas of living; (g) Understanding the relation of values to action in all areas of living; (h) Changing world conditions and how these affect values; (i) Understanding the problems of living with others whose values may be different from ours;

²⁸ *Loc. cit.*

(j) Experiencing many situations in which choices must be made; (k) Intellectualizing the process of making choices as a way of life; (l) Becoming aware of the conflicting values in American life evident in the immediate and wider community.²⁹

It should be clear that the formulation of problem areas and their analysis as proposed above is intended to provide the *scope* of general education in the high school. The various ways of determining sequence were discussed in Chapter VI. A point which must be emphasized again and again is that *these areas do not yield subject matter to be imposed, but rather are to be used as bases for the cooperative planning of units of work by the teacher and students.*

Developing Resource Materials Based Upon Problem Areas. This step is usually, but not invariably, taken by schools that utilize this technique. Each of the established problem areas is used as the basis for developing one or more resource units—defined as *a systematic and comprehensive survey, analysis, and organization of the possible resources (e.g., problems, issues, activities, bibliographies, etc.) which a teacher might utilize in planning, developing, and evaluating a learning unit.* This definition is elaborated and illustrated in Chapters XIV and XV.

Developing Learning Units in the Classroom. The final step in the Adolescent-Problems Procedure is the development of cooperatively planned units in the classroom, based upon the problem areas which have been established, and the resource units (if any) which have been worked out. See Chapters X, XI, and XIII for a complete discussion of this step.

Steps in the Adolescent-Problems Procedure. The various steps in the development of a core (Type V) or general education program may be summarized as follows:

1. Formulate the philosophy and purposes of the school.
2. Determine the common needs (or problems) of students.
3. Establish and organize Problem Areas (Scope).
4. Establish a basis for determining sequence.

²⁹ *Loc. cit.* For a comprehensive list of possible student activities in this area, see pp 481–91 of this volume. For the formulations of problem areas, some of which have been utilized by schools, see Chapter VI.

5. Develop resource materials based upon the problem areas.
6. Develop learning units in the classroom.
7. Set up a program of evaluation consistent with the philosophy underlying this type of program.

Utilizing the Adolescent-Problems Procedure in the Reorganization of Subjects. As has been intimated, this procedure has been more widely utilized in the development of advanced types of core programs than in the subject-centered curriculum. This is natural, for subjects usually have their scope and sequence defined by the "internal logic" of the field (See Chapter V), whereas schools developing advanced type core programs cannot utilize a completely predetermined scope and sequence.

Nevertheless it is certainly possible to improve the subject-centered curriculum through the needs or problems approach. As a matter of fact the *Commission on the Secondary School Curriculum*, to which credit has been given in this chapter for the origination and popularization of this approach to curriculum development, worked in terms of fields of knowledge rather than areas of living. The reports of this Commission referred to earlier are still the best illustrations of the use of the needs or problems concept in improving the subject-centered curriculum.

PROCEDURES IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AND THE INDIVIDUAL TEACHER

In general, procedures that are proposed for curriculum development presuppose that an entire school, or system of schools, is embarked upon a curriculum revision program. Very frequently this situation does not prevail. What then of the individual teacher who wishes to improve his work? What can he learn from the studies of curriculum procedures? Within certain limits fixed by the organization of the curriculum of the school, he may utilize either the social-functions approach or the adolescent-needs approach to improve his teaching. He may, for example, select and organize the learning activities in his field in such a way as to touch upon the crucial problems in *all* of the aspects of living. This would serve to broaden his work and to bring it more directly into relationship with present-

day living. At the same time, he may study his students in the light of general trends in adolescent development, discover their needs, interests, and problems, and reorganize his learning activities in such a way as to help the adolescent to meet his problems, satisfy his needs, and extend and enrich his interests. And he may well find that the two procedures supplement each other.

SUMMARY

Six procedures in curriculum reorganization have been discussed, two of which are commanding the attention of educators. The first and best known is the "social-functions" procedure which is based upon the problems of adult living in our culture. This procedure dominated curriculum reorganization between 1930 and 1940. The second is the "adolescent-problems" procedure which takes as its point of departure the needs, interests, and problems of the adolescent in our culture. This procedure only recently is beginning to be utilized. Interpreted strictly, these two procedures are antithetical. However, if the learning activities that are selected in the social-functions curriculum deal with the *present* problems of the adolescent, and if those that are selected in the adolescent-problems curriculum are pointed toward adult living, the two procedures tend to re-enforce each other. They may even result in the same kind of curriculum.

Both procedures seem to point rather definitely, though not inevitably, in the direction of a core curriculum in which the common problems, interests, and needs are dealt with irrespective of subject lines. On the other hand, either procedure might possibly eventuate in a subject curriculum. Much depends upon the interpretation that is placed upon the term, "needs."

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PART III

THE CURRICULUM IN ACTION

CHAPTER IX

THE EMERGING CONCEPT OF GENERAL METHOD

It is clear that the procedures which the teacher utilizes in the classroom to promote effective learning should be consistent with the general philosophy and purposes of the secondary school, the basic principles of learning, and adolescent development. These foundations of a sound concept of general method have been developed in earlier chapters. The task of the present chapter is to look at the evolving concept of general method and to evaluate it critically in the light of the above-mentioned purposes and principles.

It is perhaps trite to note that teaching procedures have always been rather closely related to philosophical and psychological theory. It is no accident that the shift in psychological emphasis from the atomistic to the organismic approach to learning is paralleled by a shift in methodology from the daily-ground-to-be-covered recitation system to unit teaching. Provisions for cooperative planning of learning activities in the classroom certainly can be traced to concern of educators for implementing democratic values. Emphasis upon the learner and his problems as one basis for determining learning activities is clearly related to what psychology has discovered about the dynamic character of the individual and the importance of motivation in human behavior. The surprising thing is that current practices lag so far behind what is known about the nature of democracy and the learning process. Certain it is that we now know enough about these things to move with confidence in

the direction of a rather complete reconstruction of the traditional concept of classroom organization and practices.

The historical development of the modern concept of general method has been developed fully by many writers.¹ Our present purpose is to touch briefly upon some of the more significant experiments which have a bearing upon our problems.

Beginning perhaps with John Dewey's famous laboratory school which was founded in 1896, there have been many experiments which sought to break the lockstep of the traditional school with its daily lessons to be learned and its subject-matter ground to be covered. Dewey abandoned the traditional curriculum and based his program upon the premise that:

A child or an adult . . . learns not alone by doing but by perceiving the consequences of what he has done in their relationship to what he may or may not do in the future: he experiments, he 'takes the consequences,' he considers them. . . . Through the consequences of his acts are revealed both the significance, the character of his purposes, previously blind and impulsive, and the related facts and objects of the world in which he lives. In this experience knowledge extends both to the self and the world; it becomes serviceable and an object of desire. In seeing how his acts change the world about him, he learns the meaning of his own powers and the ways in which his purposes must take account of things. Without such learnings, purposes remain impulses or become mere dreams. With experience of this kind, there is that growth within experience which is all one with education.²

This brief quotation presents an important clue to the concept of general method—the problems of the learner are the starting point for learning, rather than the mastery of a branch of knowledge. This meant that in a very real sense Dewey broke with the time-honored daily-recitation procedure.

To William Heard Kilpatrick must go much of the credit for

¹ See: V. T. Thayer, *The Passing of the Recitation*. Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1928.

² Katherine C. Mayhew and Anna C. Edwards, *The Dewey School: The Laboratory School of the University of Chicago, 1896-1903*, p. 477. Copyright, 1936, by D. Appleton-Century Co., New York. For a critical analysis and evaluation of the Dewey School, see Harold Rugg, *Foundations for American Education*. New York, The World Book Company, 1947. pp. 543-556.

breaking the lockstep system of education. Building upon the work of Dewey and practices of the agricultural high schools and colleges in substituting farm projects, such as raising a crop, canning fruits or vegetables, or raising a calf for the mere mastery of textbook knowledge which they were to apply later, he set forth in clear language the possibility of applying the concept of direct experience to the life of the school. In explaining the origin of new concept, Kilpatrick states:

In attacking with successive classes in educational theory, the problem of method, I had felt the need of unifying more completely a number of important related aspects of the educational process. I began to hope for some one concept which might serve this end. Such a concept, if found, must, so I thought, emphasize the factor of action, preferably a whole-hearted vigorous activity. It must at the same time provide a place for the adequate utilization of the laws of learning and no less for the essential elements of the ethical quality of conduct. The last named, looks of course to the social situation as well as to the individual attitude. Along with these should go, so it seemed, the important generalization that education is life, so easy to say and so hard to delimit. Could not all of these be contemplated under one workable notion?³

It seems clear that what Kilpatrick was proposing was a general method of learning and teaching that would catch up the evolving psychological concept of the learner as a dynamic purposive whole, the principle that real life activities are most potent in enabling the individual to reconstruct his experiences—that is, to learn—and the need for making the classroom an exemplification of democracy. This synthesis gives rise to his often quoted definition:

We understand the term, project, to refer to any unit of purposive experience, any instance of purposive activity where the dominating purposes, as an inner urge, (1) fixes the aim of the action, (2) guides the process, and (3) furnishes its drive, its inner motivation.⁴

³ William Heard Kilpatrick, "The Project Method," *Teachers College Record*, XIX, 319 (September 1918).

⁴ William Heard Kilpatrick, "Dangers and Difficulties of the Project Method and How to Overcome Them," *Teachers College Record*, XXII, 283, (September, 1921).

Perhaps the best illustration of Kilpatrick's theory is provided by the almost forgotten experiment of Ellsworth Collings,⁵ one of his graduate students. The experiment was carried out by Collings while he was County Superintendent of Schools of McDonald County, Missouri. He selected three typical one-room schools which were very much alike. One of these was designated as the "Experimental School," the others being designated as the "Control Schools." The curriculum of the Control Schools was a typical subject program, taught by the familiar daily-recitation method. The Experimental School curriculum was constructed as the program developed. No use was made of existing courses of study. There was no "extrinsic" subject matter. The curriculum was based upon the "purposes" of the pupils. These had to meet three criteria as follows: "(1) Does the purpose *genuinely* grip boys and girls? (2) Does the proposed purpose lend itself to successful realization on the part of boys and girls? (3) Does the proposed purpose prospectively lead to other and different lines of purposes in the process of its realization?"⁶

Space does not permit an extended discussion of the activities which were carried on by the different groups. It is sufficient to report that all were of a very practical nature and were proposed by the pupils or accepted by them after having been suggested by the teachers. The following are examples of these activities, selected at random from Collings' list: (1) Why Mrs. Murphy grows sunflowers along the rear end of her vegetable garden; (2) How tomatoes are canned at the local canning factory; (3) How the hornet builds his nest in the woods; (4) How men's shirts are made at the Joplin shirt factory; (5) How Mr. Smith cares for prisoners at the county jail; (6) Making a watering trough for chickens; (7) Dramatizing *The Legend of Sleepy Hollow*.

It should be emphasized that the entire curriculum was based upon activities of this type. When a game or perhaps a hand project revealed the necessity for counting or for the use of multiplication,

⁵ Ellsworth Collings, *An Experiment With a Project Curriculum*. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1923.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 329.

such material was presented. When a study of why Mr. Smith had typhoid in his home revealed the necessity for knowledge of diseases, hygiene, and sanitation, reference books along these lines were studied. When the pupils attended a campaign speech by presidential candidate Cox on the League of Nations, the need for a knowledge of current events and American and World history was apparent and the students turned to their geographies, histories, and to current periodicals for material to clear up the problems and issues.

At the beginning of the experiment, the pupils of all the schools involved were tested as to intelligence level and school progress in the fundamental facts and skills. The testing was by means of standardized instruments. At the end of the four-year experimental period, the pupils were again tested by means of different forms of the same tests. In addition, an attempt was made to determine the effect of the activities of the Experimental School upon certain phases of community life and upon the attitudes of the pupils and parents toward the school and the community.

The results of the experiment indicated the overwhelming superiority of the Experimental School over the Control Schools. In other words, when the outcomes were measured by tests designed for the *traditional* curriculum, the school which followed the methodology of the project was far in the lead. Not only in the acquisition of the ordinary facts and skills did the Experimental School show its superiority, but also in the marked improvement of the conduct of pupils out of school and in the attitudes of parents toward the school and education in general.

This experiment has been dwelt upon at some length because of its historical significance. The results have been confirmed by more than thirty years of careful experimentation.⁷

The implications of the experiment for general method seem clear enough. They point to a methodology which breaks with the daily recitation system by subordinating the time block to the job to be done or the purpose to be served. It is also possible to identify

⁷ For example, see J. Paul Leonard and Alvin Enrich, *An Evaluation of Modern Education*. New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., 1942.

various stages in the development of the project such as "purposing, planning, executing, and judging."⁸ These stages, according to Kilpatrick, are "typical steps in a purposeful enterprise." These steps, it should be noted, correspond rather closely to Dewey's "Complete Act of Thought," which was discussed in Chapter III. "Purposing and planning" may be identified with Dewey's initial steps in thinking, which embrace the location and definition of the felt difficulty (problem) and the formulation of one or more hypotheses. "Executing" corresponds to the gathering of data and the application of the data to the hypotheses—to the solution of the problem. "Judging" is closely related to the final phases of the complete act of thought in which the solution of the problem is tested through action.

Kilpatrick makes it clear that these steps are applicable not only to individual action but also to group situations. For, he points out, "If the group does as a group perform each step with reasonable wholeheartedness, jointly and singly, as the lawyers say, then I should say we have a joint or group act of thought."⁹ In other words, Kilpatrick saw in his analysis a way of organizing the total life of the classroom in such a way as to promote more effective learning. In a broad sense, the sketched classroom procedure was applicable to *all* situations. Specific techniques for carrying on drill, for learning the fundamentals, would be utilized within the framework of the "purposeful group enterprise."

Thus in the early Twenties was laid the foundation for a new and fresh way of dealing with classroom learning. Not only was the theory well developed, it had also been carried forward successfully into school practice, even though the psychological documentation was rather sketchy until the early Thirties when the experiments of the organismic psychologists began to influence the thinking of leaders in education.

At the same time that the foundations for a general classroom methodology were being laid by Dewey, Kilpatrick, Collings, and others and carried into practice in many "progressive" elementary

⁸ See William Heard Kilpatrick, *Foundations of Method*. Chapter XIII. "Purposeful Activity: the Complete Act." New York, The Macmillan Company, 1925.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 215.

schools under the banner of the *Progressive Education Association* which was founded in 1918, other movements which were to make a contribution to classroom practices were under way.

Even before Dewey established his laboratory school at the University of Chicago in 1896, Preston Search set up his plan of individualized instruction in Pueblo, Colorado (1888). He abolished the daily recitation system and permitted students to advance at their individual rates of speed. Frederic Burk seems to have been the first educator to systematize a plan for individualizing instruction. The scheme was worked out in the training school of the San Francisco State College in 1913. The staff developed self-instructional materials which were placed in the hands of students. Group assignments and recitations were entirely abolished and each student advanced through the prepared written assignments at his own rate of speed. The teacher checked his progress and helped him with his difficulties. When the student had finished a particular assignment, he was tested upon it and, if he had mastered it, he was given a new one. The plan seems to have met with considerable success. It remained for two educators who came under Burk's influence, however, to refine and popularize the basic ideas of individualized instruction. Helen Parkhurst developed and installed the Dalton Plan in the public schools of Dalton, Massachusetts, and later in the Dalton School of New York City (1920), where certain of its original features are still in use. Carleton Washburne applied the technique with similar modifications to the elementary schools of Winnetka, Illinois (1919).

These plans contributed largely in a negative way to the development of a concept of general method. Their greatest contribution perhaps was to call attention to the inadequacies of the daily-recitation system, and to the need for giving attention to individual differences among students—especially in respect to *rates* of learning. They were, however, far in advance of their time, and are worthy of study by serious students of education from an historical point of view. Neither plan was widely used in public schools. They had little effect upon either the curriculum or the teaching procedures of the vast majority of secondary schools. Both plans were

rejected by many of the so-called "progressives" as being too mechanical, and as too far removed from the purposes of the learner.

At the same time that Kilpatrick was developing and popularizing the project method and new techniques for providing for individualized instruction were being evolved, another educator, Henry C. Morrison, was working experimentally at the Laboratory School of the University of Chicago along quite a different line. The exposition of his teaching procedure was published in 1926 under the impressive title: *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*. This volume sets forth the results of six years of experimentation on the part of Morrison and his staff.

It is difficult to find in Morrison's published work any traces of the influence of Dewey or Kilpatrick, who were at the very period of experimentation exerting a profound influence upon American education, especially at the elementary level. Rather Morrison seems to have taken his point of departure from the Herbartian psychology, even though there is no direct reference to Herbart in the published report.

His plan is based on the theory that the traditional school has made the serious mistake of assuming that "assimilative materials" in the form of lessons to be learned, or subject matter to be covered, were the true learning products. Morrison holds that genuine learning is an actual change in the behavior of the learner. This change, borrowing from biology, he designates as an *adaptation*.

The fact that adaptations are regarded as unitary, and as such are either acquired in toto or not acquired at all, is the base upon which Morrison builds most of his teaching techniques. Since education is held to consist of a series of successive unitary adaptations, it follows that an appropriate teaching procedure for acquiring them must be set up. Hence the job of the curriculum maker is two-fold. He must first discover or formulate the adaptations which in the social evolution of the culture have aided man in his long climb toward civilization, and second, he must devise appropriate procedures for translating these racial learnings into the day-to-day behavior of the student.

Morrison's greatest contribution to general method is his "science-type" procedure, even though it is only one of five different procedures which Morrison describes. This procedure is held to be appropriate for use whenever the learning product to be acquired is an *attitude of understanding*, usually expressed as a generalization. When the student has grasped the appropriate generalization and can apply it to new situations, he is assumed to have achieved an attitude of understanding—an adaptation has taken place.

The unit is the vehicle used by Morrison for teaching the required adaptations. He defines a unit as "some significant and comprehensive aspect of the environment, of an organized science, of an art, or of conduct, which being learned results in an adaptation in personality."¹⁰

Morrison illustrates his definition by means of a unit in the field of general science entitled, "Our Water Supply." This, Morrison points out, is an important and significant aspect of the environment for everyone. It is a totality rather than a fragment. It requires the mastery of principles, facts, and processes if the student is to gain an attitude of understanding which will change his behavior toward the world in which he lives.

Perhaps the meaning of the unit as defined by Morrison can be clarified by considering the characteristics of a *good* teaching unit as set forth by E. R. Breslich, one of Morrison's colleagues in the University of Chicago Laboratory School:

1. It is a body of closely related facts and principles so organized as to contribute to the understanding of an important aspect of the course.
2. It must be possible to present the unit as a whole in a form so concise as to give the learner a clear conception of it before he undertakes to study it.
3. The objectives must be so definitely stated that they are clear not only to the teacher but also to the pupil. The learning products must be known.
4. All pupils qualified to take the course must be able to master the minimum essentials necessary and sufficient to attain complete under-

¹⁰ Henry C. Morrison, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School* (Revised edition). Chicago, The University of Chicago Press, 1931, pp. 24-25.

standing of the unit. In addition to this minimum, the unit must contain supplementary materials to allow freedom in adapting the work to the individual differences of the pupils.¹¹

The application of Morrison's definition and Breslich's criteria of a good teaching unit may best be understood by sketching briefly the five steps in one of Morrison's favorite units, "Our Water Supply" which, as has been pointed out earlier, satisfies the requirements of his definition.

The teacher's first task is to determine the present experiences of the student which have a bearing upon the new learning to be acquired and at the same time to provide the information needed by the teacher to do a good job of presenting the unit. This information may be secured by means of a pre-test or oral discussion. This first phase of the procedure is appropriately called *Exploration*. This step would vary from thirty minutes to several periods, depending upon the extent of the experience of the students with the subject matter of the unit.¹²

The next step, the *Presentation*, is the teacher's opportunity to present, perhaps in the form of a lecture, the broad outlines of the unit. He presents the material in the form of generalizations and basic facts, leaving out the details. For example, the general principles upon which the pump is based—density, pressure, etc.—would be presented as essential to the acquisition of the new understanding. The test of mastery is the student's ability to apply these new principles in such a way as to exercise more intelligent control over his environment. As Morrison expresses it: The teacher approaches the task of imparting, in its major essentials, in a single period if

¹¹ E. R. Breslich, "The Unit in Mathematics," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*. V, 324-325 (February, 1931).

¹² The reader will note the similarity in terminology and procedure of the various steps proposed by Morrison, and the steps in the Herbartian procedure, which are usually listed as follows. (1) Preparation, (2) Presentation, (3) Comparison and Abstraction, (4) Generalization, and (5) Application. It should be noted, however, that there is one significant difference. The Herbartian steps applied to an extended unit of work covering many periods. See Harold Albery and Vivian T. Thayer, *Supervision in the Secondary School*. Boston; D. C. Heath and Co., 1931, pp. 308-310, William Chandler Bagley, *The Educative Process*, The Macmillan Company, 1920, Chapters XIX and XX.

possible, the understanding which is the unit. In brief, through direct, convincing oral presentation he teaches the unit itself.¹³

At the close, a presentation test is given to determine whether or not the essentials have registered. If the essentials have failed to register, a re-presentation is given. Contrary to the usual, ground-to-be-covered procedure, the students have had, up to this point, no assignment. The assignment actually takes place in the next step.

The students are now ready for Step III, *Assimilation*, which may require several days or a number of weeks. Upon the basis of the first two steps, the teacher assigns reference material, suggestions for study, etc., usually by means of a mimeographed "guide sheet," helps the students over difficult places, and stimulates those who are capable of doing so to work on a voluntary project or problem as evidence of their ability to pursue an independent interest. In the unit under discussion, appropriate reference material and apparatus dealing with pumps and other aspects of the water supply would be placed at the disposal of the class. With the aid of the guide sheets, they would use these materials for the purpose of understanding and mastering the generalizations which the teacher presented earlier. One student might, as a voluntary project, construct a pump, another might delve deeply into the problems of municipal ownership and control, while a third might go deeply into the historical evolution of water supply systems. The extent of these voluntary activities is limited only by the interests of the students and the time which may be properly spent upon the unit. In this way, the "slack-time" which results from individual differences in rates of learning is taken up. When the teacher has decided that *all* of the students have mastered the minimum essentials, the assimilation period comes to a close.

The group is now ready for the fourth step, *Organization*. Here the purpose is to get the students to demonstrate that they have acquired the new understanding. Usually the period takes the form of a comprehensive test in which the students are required to organize all of the significant data which they have discovered in terms of the new understanding which they have gained. A further pur-

¹³ Morrison, *op. cit.*, p. 267.

pose of the organization period is to afford the students valuable training in developing the ability to write coherent and effective English. Finally, the organization is designed to further the establishment of the new attitude.

The fifth and final step is called the *Recitation*, which consists usually of oral presentations by different members of the class, group discussions, "floor talks," "written recitations," and applications of the understandings to different situations. This step is intended to provide final and complete evidence that learning has actually taken place.

Morrison gives little place to the setting up of problem situations, to student purposing, to teacher-student planning, to the development of the adaptations which are necessary to effective adjustment in our society. The method has its roots in the passive psychology of Herbart and in the evolutionary conception of society. What then are Morrison's contributions to modern methodology? Certainly if it is to be found at all, it will be outside the main stream of dynamic development fostered by Dewey and the progressive school of thought.

Morrison undoubtedly has performed a distinct service to American education in helping to distinguish between the shadow and the substance in learning. We can no longer regard mere ground-to-be-covered as a desirable educational objective. He has also made a contribution to education by systematizing a procedure for providing for individual differences which can be utilized by individual teachers even though the teaching staff as a whole is not committed to a common philosophy or teaching procedure. Perhaps even a greater contribution is his attempt to present a workable concept of the nature of the learning unit. Here he has pointed the way, not only to a new method of selecting and organizing learning activities, but also to a general teaching procedure which offers promise of an escape from the deadly routine of the daily-recitation method.

Another attempt in the third decade of the century to bridge the gap between the growing body of theory regarding individual differences, the organismic nature of the individual, need for giving attention to new concepts of thinking and the transfer of training,

and the formalism of the recitation method, was developed by Harry L. Miller ¹⁴ and his colleagues at the University of Wisconsin High School. His plan bears some resemblance in general form to that of Morrison, but gives much more place to the evolving dynamic concepts of philosophy and psychology. He proposed that units be set up in the form of "contracts" or challenges. The teacher first introduced the students to the unit which was based upon some broad generalization such as, "Plants Need Water." The teacher then permitted the students to choose among three contracts. The "F Contract" represented the lowest level of understanding which all students must master; the "G Contract" included, in addition, capacity to utilize and apply the basic generalizations; the "E Contract" called for more novel applications of the generalizations to new situations. These contracts were made the basis for grading—the student receiving the grade of *Fair*, *Good*, or *Excellent* in terms of the completion of the corresponding contract or assignment.

This plan seemed to possess excellent possibilities for providing for individual differences both in abilities and rates of learning. The ideas were adopted by many teachers, but the plan failed to survive even in the University of Wisconsin High School. By the middle Thirties it had entirely disappeared from the educational scene.

It has been shown that the first three decades of the Twentieth Century marked a period of great change in educational thinking, particularly in the field of general method. Educators, by and large, rejected the daily-recitation procedure as being incompatible with the new theories of learning and the results of experiments in the newer methodology.

V. T. Thayer was impressed by the shift in emphasis which was taking place and in 1928 attempted to synthesize the major findings in philosophy, psychology, and teaching procedures into a general procedure applicable to all types of learning activities. His published work ¹⁵ is undoubtedly the clearest interpretation of the new

¹⁴ See H. L. Miller and R. T. Hargreaves, *The Self-Directed School*. New York; Charles Scribner's Sons, 1925, and H. L. Miller, *Creative Learning and Teaching*, New York; Charles Scribner's Sons, 1927.

¹⁵ V. T. Thayer, *The Passing of the Recitation*. Copyright, 1928, by D. C. Heath and Company, Boston.

trends that were well under way. His optimism is evidenced in the following statement:

And so, gradually, the conception of schooling has come to mean not merely preparation for adult life but an integral part of child life itself. At first, as we have seen, it consisted in little more than formal instruction within a very limited field. The textbook dominated the situation and the master's duty was summed up in the injunction to see that pupils "learned" their lessons. Education has now broadened out to include a first-hand concern for a pupil's growth. It attempts to define very definitely the outcome of schooling in terms of objectives of growth and development, traits of character for which subject matter and school activities are means, not ends. As means, however, school experiences are supremely important and they are scrutinized carefully with reference to the ends they are designed to realize. This concern for ends, with development as against the acquisition of information, is leading to an increased sensitiveness to other factors in the learning situation to such an extent that teachers appreciate as never before the significance of the subtle lines of influence between home, school, and community.

The realization of the intimate connection of many factors in the learning situation and the conception of education through and for behavior as against education for information, rests upon a theory of learning which likewise contrasts with that which prevailed in our early schools. Today we no longer consider learning to be a process in which outer impressions are written upon a blank mind as characters may be traced upon a wax tablet.¹⁶

At the time that Thayer wrote the above, the formulations of the organismic psychologists as to the wholeness of human personality and of the learning process, had not been clearly developed, but the atomistic point of view of Thorndike had been successfully challenged by the work of Jennings,¹⁷ and the basic principles of Gestalt psychology had been formulated by Koffka.¹⁸ Enough was known for Thayer to be able to write:

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 44-45.

¹⁷ H. S. Jennings, *Prometheus, or Biology and the Advancement of Man*. New York, E. P. Dutton and Company, 1925. (Note: His *Biological Basis of Behavior* did not appear until 1930.)

¹⁸ Kurt Koffka, *The Growth of the Mind*. New York, Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., 1925. (Note: The work of Wheeler and Perkins, Lashley and Coghill had not been reported at the time of Thayer's writing.)

We thus see that the conceptions of learning as an activity controlled and directed both from within and without leads to educational methods which contrast with the early precepts of teaching. It places in the foreground an appeal to the genuine interests of children as starting points for instruction and it defines the outcomes of education in terms of interests, i.e., dynamic ideals and habits. It recognizes that curriculum materials cannot center exclusively upon adult values, that they must be organized with reference to the findings of both psychology and sociology. It no longer conceives of subject matter and method as separate, but urges that each school subject be organized and taught with an eye to its content and procedure values. And finally by identifying what was traditionally thought of as intellect, feeling, and will, it seeks to organize life within the school so that it will serve as an active agent in the development of integrated personalities.¹⁹

Against the background of philosophy and psychology, Thayer placed the results of three decades of experimentation in teaching procedures designed to provide for individual differences and came forward with a teaching plan to accelerate "the passing of the recitation." His plan for group and individual instruction has three steps. The first one is *Planning and Assignment*. Here the teacher plans tentatively the work of the unit and makes the assignment to the class. This assignment has for its central purpose the "identification of the pupil's purposes with those of the teacher." In doing this, the teacher presents an overview of the unit and provides for the sense of direction needed by the students in their individual and group undertakings. The assignment phase ends when most of the students are ready to start work. It will continue with the others, perhaps into the period which follows, as occasion demands. The second step is known as the *Working Period* during which "the bulk of the group will doubtless travel in a body; but with a skillful teacher there is no reason why individuals and small parties should not be encouraged to stop for a time, when especially interested, or again, progress more rapidly than others in order to gain time for a side excursion of peculiar importance to them. If the final meeting place is clearly agreed upon all can meet at the proper time and while resting can exchange experiences to their mutual ad-

¹⁹ Thayer, *op. cit.*, pp. 143-144.

vantage.”²⁰ Here the teacher studies his students, their interests, and needs and helps each one to develop what is for him the best method of work. He encourages individual students to pursue their special interests and to achieve higher levels of learning. Mastery of the common essentials of the unit is insisted upon for all students, though it is probably unlikely that any two students will achieve precisely the same degree of mastery. Thayer emphasizes again and again the flexible character of the period and urges the teacher to adapt his material and methods to the group. Guide sheets indicating the work to be covered are recommended. The period as a rule closes with some kind of a test which has for its chief purpose “the organization of the work thus far engaged upon.” Borrowing from the contributions of the socialized recitation, the author utilizes the term, the *Socialized Period*, to describe the third and final step of his procedure. Here again there are no fixed directions to follow. In general, the period will consist of discussions by students, summaries of the general principles involved, “floor talks, individual and sub-group reports of special problems or projects undertaken, and a general tie-up of the various aspects of the unit. It will also be utilized for the purpose of discussing the new work to be undertaken.”²¹ Aside from a lack of emphasis upon coöperative teacher-student planning in the first step, Thayer’s proposal, made in 1928, seems quite up to date at the present time.

From the discussion up to this point it seems fair to conclude that by 1930 the essentials of a new classroom procedure had been formulated. Was this new procedure accepted and practiced in high schools generally? The answer is well known to all students of education. The well-known lag between theory and practice was in evidence. In spite of the crusading spirit of the exponents of the new methodology, in practice the various plans which possessed distinct features tended to lose their identity. When Billett²² made

²⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 203.

²¹ For a complete discussion of this plan, see Thayer, *op. cit.*, Chapters XIX-XXI.

²² Roy O. Billett, *Provisions for Individual Differences, Marking and Promotion*. National Survey of Secondary Education, Office of Education Bulletin, 1932, No. 17, Monograph No. 13. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1933.

his comprehensive study of unit teaching in 1932 he found that a large number of plans which claimed to be distinctive differed in name only. He found no essential differences in practice between "long-unit assignments, individualized instruction, the contract plan, the problem method, and the project method."²³

Many teachers who claimed to be using some sort of unit plan were combining it with daily assignments which largely cancelled the values which might have accrued from a systematic use of unit planning practices. Some textbook writers climbed onto the bandwagon and substituted "units" for chapter headings. By and large the daily ground-to-be-covered method with textbook assignment of lessons continued to dominate secondary-school teaching. As Billett pointed out, "In most schools, the unit assignment is a decided innovation functioning in a small number of subjects, often in only one subject."²⁴ The reasons for this situation are not difficult to discover. Among them are these:

1. The advances in methodology were not accompanied by corresponding advances in curriculum design.
2. The newer formulations of the nature of learning were slow in penetrating the teacher-education institutions
3. The textbook system was deeply entrenched.
4. The socio-economic situation was confused, and as a consequence interfered with basic thinking about educational foundations.

It has been pointed out that by 1930 the foundations for a new concept of learning and teaching had been laid. This concept was based upon the basic values of democracy which the schools were to implement, upon the new dynamic psychology of learning and transfer, and upon a quarter of a century of experimentation in the classroom.²⁵

The period between 1930 and the close of World War II was characterized largely by clarifying, extending, and implementing what had already been learned. Naturally much of this implementa-

²³ *Ibid.*, p. 330.

²⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 331.

²⁵ Harold Rugg in his *Foundations for American Education*, pp. 569-570 presents an "Honor Roll" of forty pioneer progressive schools founded between 1875 and 1930.

tion took the form of curriculum reorganization since the new concept of teaching and learning in our democratic culture called for a different kind of learning experience and a different kind of curricular organization.

The Progressive Education Association launched a series of far-reaching studies in the area of secondary education. Some of these will be described briefly.

The Commission on the Relation between School and College, founded and directed by Wilford Aikin, set up the *Eight-Year Study* to test the hypothesis that secondary schools could change their curriculums drastically and still prepare students effectively for college. Some thirty schools were selected for the experiment upon the basis of their willingness and capacity for experimentation. Largely because of the influence of Boyd H. Bode, who was a member of the directing committee, these schools became sensitive to the development and implementation of a philosophy of education based upon democratic values. All or nearly all of them were committed to cooperative teacher-student planning as a basis of selecting and carrying forward learning activities. Most of them carried on systematic programs of guidance and evaluation. Many of them experimented with new patterns of general education. At the close of the study (1942), the staff, which was made up of representatives of secondary schools and colleges, made the following report:

In a comparison of 1475 matched pairs (of students) the Follow-up Staff found that the graduates of the Thirty Schools:

1. earned a slightly higher total grade average;
2. earned higher grade averages in all subject fields except foreign languages;
3. specialized in the same academic fields as did the comparison students,
4. did not differ from the comparison group in the number of times they were placed on probation;
5. received slightly more academic honors in each year;
6. were more often judged to possess a high degree of intellectual curiosity and drive;

7. were more often judged to be precise, systematic and objective in their thinking;
8. were more often judged to have developed clear and well-formulated ideas concerning the meaning of education—especially in the first two years of college,
9. more often demonstrated a high degree of resourcefulness in meeting new situations;
10. did not differ from the comparison group in ability to plan their time effectively,
11. had about the same problems of adjustment as the comparison group, but approached their solution with greater effectiveness,
12. participated somewhat more frequently, and more often enjoyed appreciative experiences in the arts;
13. participated more in all organized student groups except religious and service activities,
14. earned in each college year a higher percentage of non-academic honors (officership in organizations, election to managerial societies, athletic insignia, leading roles in dramatic and musical presentations),
15. did not differ from the comparison group in the quality of adjustment to their contemporaries,
16. differed only slightly from the comparison group in the kinds of judgment about their schooling,
17. had a somewhat better orientation toward the choice of a vocation;
18. demonstrated a more active concern for what was going on in the world.²⁶

The contributions of this study to general classroom procedure or method are many and varied. While not all of the schools made significant changes in their programs, most schools did become more sensitive to the need for working out classroom procedures which were more consistent with the aims and purposes which they accepted. Since then aims included the development of such behavior characteristics as openmindedness, creativeness and imagination, the power and habit of analysis, the habit of reaching conclusions on the basis of valid evidence, and social concern and acceptance of responsibility, classroom procedures were initiated which were

²⁶ Wilford Aikin, *The Story of the Eight-Year Study*, pp. 110-12. Copyright, 1942, by Harper and Brothers, New York. By permission of The McGraw-Hill Book Co. See also Dean Chamberlin, and Others, *Did They Succeed in College*. New York, Harper and Brothers, 1943.

regarded as most likely to lead to these goals. Teacher-student planning, cooperative group work and evaluation, individual and small group problems and projects were the logical tools to use to develop these characteristics.

Since the daily assignment-recitation technique was ill-adapted to these purposes, it was abandoned in favor of long-term unit planning, which had several distinguishable characteristics. The first was: *Setting the Problem*. Usually this was done upon the basis of standards or criteria accepted by the group. The curriculum consultants of the study submitted the following list as typical questions which the group might ask concerning a proposed topic, unit, or problem:

1. Is our activity appropriate for the maturity level of the group?
2. Does it lead on and extend the horizons of the members of the group?
3. Does it provide opportunities for developing intelligent scientific attitudes?
4. Does it provide for individual initiative?
5. Does it provide for group activities?
6. Does it encourage the use of a large variety of materials for expression—talking, writing, painting, modeling, dramatizing, singing, dancing, and so forth?
7. Does it bring to the fore fundamental social issues that are significant to the members of the group?
8. Do we enjoy it? ²⁷

These questions give a clue to the succeeding steps in the generalized method. After the problem, unit or topic was agreed upon, plans were made for carrying on the activities. We might call this the *Work Period*. According to the consultants, such an extended work period should include:

1. Whole group planning and work on a topic which is big enough to include the actual interests and needs of the group as a whole.
2. Smaller group planning and work on such phases of the topic as seem natural and profitable temporary divisions for intensive research.

²⁷ H. H. Giles, S. P. McCutchen, and A. N. Zechiel, *Exploring the Curriculum*. New York, Harper and Brothers, 1942, p. 128. See also the accounts of the different schools in: *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story*. New York, Harper and Brothers, 1943. By permission of The American Education Fellowship.

3. Individual planning and work both on special aspects of the subdivisions and on other interests which may not be closely connected with the topic at hand.²⁸

This step recognized the need both for group and individual activities—group work in terms of common needs and individual work in terms of particular needs and interests. This practice obviated the necessity of homogeneous grouping which had swept the country in the Twenties and early Thirties, with generally disappointing results.

The commitment of the schools to teacher-student planning naturally led to the third and final step. Provision was made for bringing the study to a close through individual and group reports, dramatizations, forums, and the like, and for evaluation of the outcomes.²⁹ This step has come to be called the *Culminating Phase*.

Thus the Eight-Year Study documented the need for a clean break with the daily recitation which the pioneers of the Thirties demanded. Unfortunately the reports of the study came at a time when the entire nation was involved in a death struggle against totalitarianism. Consequently it did not receive the attention it deserved. The impact upon the rank and file of secondary schools was very slight indeed. Teachers, by and large, went on assigning daily lessons from textbooks.

The work of two commissions of the *Progressive Education Association* (now the *American Education Fellowship*), which functioned concurrently with the Eight-Year Study, is worthy of mention because of their contributions to the modern concept of method. *The Commission on the Secondary-School Curriculum*, headed by V. T. Thayer, was appointed in 1932 for the purpose of studying the problems of reorganizing secondary education in order to make it function more effectively in meeting the needs of all adolescents. Through its various studies it attempted to develop an "understanding of curriculum problems common to both secondary and college instruction, and a common method of approach to their solution.

²⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 112-113.

²⁹ See Eugene Smith and Ralph Tyler, *Appraising and Recording Student Progress*. New York, Harper and Brothers, 1943.

Hence it lent material assistance to the schools and colleges cooperating with the earlier Commission, although seeking primarily to stimulate the rethinking and reorganization of all programs of secondary education.”³⁰

The Commission identified the needs of adolescents and classified them in four “crucial areas” as follows: (1) Needs in Immediate Social Relationships; (2) Needs in Economic Relationships; (3) Needs in Personal Living; and (4) Needs in Wider Social Relationship. The list of needs identified were then used by the various subcommittees in subject fields, as a basis for making proposals for curriculum reorganization in their respective fields. The final reports of these committees all stressed the need for a complete break with the organized subject-matter tradition and advocated a unit type of teaching based upon the problems, interests, and needs of adolescents in our contemporary American culture.

The other commission of the association referred to above was the *Commission on Human Relations* and was headed by Alice Keliher. This group sought to discover the contributions of anthropology, psychology, psychiatry, sociology, child study, and literature to the education of the adolescent.³¹

The work of this commission focused attention on the problems of adolescents with particular reference to the establishment of human relations. As a result of experimental studies of the problems of young people expressed in group situations, the Commission issued a statement entitled, “Typical Points of Focus of Concerns of Adolescents,” which has had considerable influence in developing

³⁰ V. T. Thayer, Caroline B. Zachry, and Ruth Kotinsky, *Reorganizing Secondary Education* New York, D Appleton-Century Company, 1939, p. vi. Other books by the Commission included the following: Peter A. Blos, *The Adolescent Personality: A Study of Individual Behavior*, *The Visual Arts in General Education*, *Language in General Education*, *Mathematics in General Education*, *Science in General Education*, *The Social Studies in General Education*, Caroline B. Zachry and Margaret Lighty, *Emotion and Conduct in Adolescence*. All published by the D Appleton-Century Company, Inc.

³¹ The following volumes grew out of the work of the Commission: Alice Keliher, *Life and Growth*, Louis Rosenblatt, *Literature as Exploration*, Katherine W. Taylor, *Do Adolescents Need Parents*; and W. C. Langer, *Psychology and Human Living*. All published by D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc. between 1937 and 1943.

problem areas and units of work in core program development. The "concerns" in problems were classified under the following categories: (1) Establishing Personal Relationships, (2) Establishing Independence, (3) Understanding Human Behavior, (4) Establishing the Self in Society, (5) Normality, (6) Understanding the Universe.³²

In addition to the experimental program of the schools of the *Eight-Year-Study*, the period beginning about 1930 and extending to World War II was rich in curriculum development programs which broke with the daily recitation system and established new patterns of curriculums and classroom procedures. One of the best known of these programs was inaugurated in Virginia in 1931.³³

The program, developed by the Virginia State Department of Public Instruction under the leadership of Sidney B. Hall and Hollis L. Caswell, broke completely with the daily ground-to-be-covered conception of education and organized the program around units of work. A unit of work was defined as follows:

. . . a series of related activities engaged in by children in the process of realizing a dominating purpose which was compatible with the aims of education. It will be noted that this definition has three determining aspects.

- a. A dominating purpose of the part of children, compatible with the aims of education,
- b. A series of related activities engaged in by the children under the guidance of the teacher to realize their purpose.
- c. The evaluation of these activities by the children³⁴

The Virginia program set the pattern for state, county, and city-wide curriculum development programs. Best known among them are Kansas, California, Mississippi, Georgia, Santa Barbara City,

³² See the report in full in Giles, McCutchen and Zechiel, *op. cit.*, pp. 315-320.

³³ See Henry Harap, *et al.*, *The Changing Curriculum*. New York, D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc. 1937, Chapter IX, Hollis L. Caswell and Doak Campbell, *Curriculum Development*. New York, The American Book Company, 1935.

³⁴ Sidney B. Hall, D. W. Peters and Hollis L. Caswell, *Procedures for Virginia State Curriculum Program*. Bulletin of the State Board of Education, Vol. 15. Richmond, State Department of Education, 1932, p. 129.

Santa Barbara County, Fort Worth, Texas, Burbank, California. Most of these programs functioned most effectively at the elementary level where the subject-matter tradition was not so firmly entrenched, but even here the attempt to change met with great resistance, because of lack of preparation of teachers and administrators to carry on the new programs, inadequate public-relations programs, and inadequate materials of instruction. However, even though most of these programs failed to survive World War II, important lessons in educational method were learned from them. A large body of experience in the organization of units of work was gained. Increasing use was made of teacher-student planning. A new concept of evaluation in terms of cooperatively developed goals and values found expression.

World War II put an end to the spirited drive toward curriculum reorganization and consequently to experimentation with the newer classroom procedures. As a matter of fact there was a marked tendency to retreat to traditional patterns in which teachers felt more secure. However, with the close of the war, a number of important developments got under way, the total effects of which cannot yet be evaluated. Two of these developments will only be mentioned at this point in our discussion, since they are discussed fully in other chapters.

In 1944, the Educational Policies Commission brought forth its proposal for reorganizing the high-school curriculum upon the basis of the "ten imperative needs of youth."³⁵

From one-half to two-thirds of the school day was to be given over to a program of "common learnings" organized without reference to conventional subject lines. Undoubtedly this proposal created a new interest in unit planning and teaching, since textbooks based upon logically organized systems of knowledge were unsuited to the new program. The United States Office of Education esti-

³⁵ *Education for All American Youth*. Washington, Educational Policies Commission, 1944. (See also the revised edition—*Education For All American Youth—A Further Look*, 1952). An excellent pictorial summary of the above volume has been published by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals under the title: *Planning for American Youth*, and has consistently advocated the program of curriculum reorganization set forth in that volume.

mated that about 800 high schools, mostly on the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades, are operating on a core or common learnings basis. Most of these programs are characterized by a unit approach.

Another movement which has thrown considerable light on the nature of general method has become known as *Group Dynamics* or *Group Processes*. Pioneer studies of the manner in which groups behave in different kinds of environment which involved contrasting types of leadership were carried on at the University of Iowa under the leadership of Kurt Lewin.³⁶ These studies tend to show that a group involved in carrying out a project, solving a problem, or engaging in any kind of activity involving common concerns is more effective when democratic principles are utilized in planning and carrying forward the activity.

From the small beginning made at the University of Iowa, the movement has spread rapidly and extensive experimentation has been carried out not only in school situations, but also in industry, community projects, professional organizations, and the like.³⁷

The nature of the group process is fairly simple, though a very elaborate terminology has grown up in an attempt to define the functions of leaders, observers, recorders, and the like. One school of thought refuses to associate the concept with democracy and confines itself to objective descriptions of group behavior under varying conditions. While this is undoubtedly a valuable emphasis, it tends to obscure some of the principal values which are of importance to educators.

From the standpoint of democratic education the group process has been defined as follows:

³⁶ See Kurt Lewin, Ronald Lippitt and Ralph K. White, "Patterns of Aggression Behavior in Experimentally Created Social Climates," *Journal of Social Psychology*, X, 271-279 (May, 1939).

³⁷ For example see: Leland Bradford, "Building Employee Security," *Personnel*, New York, American Management Association (January, 1946); J. R. P. French, Jr., "A Method of Training Foremen," in *Human Factors in Management*, (edited by Schuler Dean Hoslet), Park College Press, 1946; William V. Biddle, *Community Studies and Dynamics*, Richmond, Indiana, Earlham College, 1948. See also the various reports of the *National Training Laboratory in Group Development*, Bethel, Maine.

Group process . . . refers to the ends-means procedures utilized by a group of individuals thinking, discussing, planning, deciding, acting and evaluating together for the purpose of attacking and solving a common problem. It implies the meeting and interacting of minds in face-to-face relationships in which co-operative and creative thinking takes place and action and growth ensue. (The goal of group processes is group productivity, that is, getting something done which could not be done by a single individual)

The real focus of group processes in education is relations with or between people. . . . The process creates and recreates designs which make the most of the collective judgments of the group members. The continuous mobilization of the position elements which come out of the interaction of group members gives the group process its dynamic force and power. Its material are the ideas, feelings, and experiences of people because the group is people. Group processes are simply the ends-means procedures developed by a group unified by interdependency of behavior and by the identification of the members of the group in attacking a common problem.”³⁸

From this definition, the principles of learning involved in group thinking and the ideals of democratic living, the principles of group process may be derived. Perhaps the following formulation is somewhat oversimplified, but it serves the purpose of highlighting the contributions of democratic group process to general method.

1. The group process is effective to the extent that concerns are shared by members of the group.
2. The group process is most effective in situations in which the leadership is shared by various members of the group.
3. The solution of a problem arrived at through the group process is to be accepted as the “best” solution, even though the judgment of the group is not shared by the status leader.
4. The group process requires that there be mutual respect for members of the group and that differences among individuals or minorities be utilized as a means of developing richer and deeper insights which will enhance the quality of the solution of the problem.
5. The effective use of the group process is one means of releasing the creative potentialities of the members of an organization.

³⁸ *Group Processes in Supervision* (Lavonne Hanna, Ch) pp. 27-28 (Italics in original). Copyright, 1948, by Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Washington.

6. The status leader facilitates the process by means of which decisions on common problems are reached.³⁹

How does a democratically organized group go about the solving of a common problem? Three distinct but interrelated stages may be identified.

1. *The Planning Stage.* The group identifies its problem and formulates procedures for arriving at a solution.
2. *The Developmental Stage.* The group collects data which have a bearing upon the solution of the problem. Subgroups work in terms of the decisions made in the planning stage. Interaction among members takes place as they attempt to arrive at the "best" solution of the problem.
3. *The Concluding and Evaluating Stages.* The group pools the efforts of individual members and evaluates the effectiveness of the proposed solution in terms of the goals or purposes which were defined in the initial stages.

From this analysis, it may be inferred that effective group work follows the general principles of learning and is consistent with the evolving concept of general method.

SOME GENERALIZATIONS CONCERNING GENERAL METHOD DERIVED FROM DEMOCRATIC VALUES, THE PSYCHOLOGY OF LEARNING, AND THE FEWER CLASSROOM PRACTICES.

1. The concept of the complete act of thoughts which involves, perplexity, confusion, or doubt leading to a definition of the problem; the setting up of one or more hypotheses, or tentative plans of action; investigation, analysis, interpretation to test the various hypotheses with the necessary elaboration, modification, or refinement of the most fruitful hypotheses, and action based upon adequate data, provides the key to an effective classroom procedure.
2. The complete act of thought describes not only the way an individual goes about resolving a difficulty, but also describes the way a group with a common problem operates in order to find a solution to its problem.

³⁹ Harold Benjamin (ed.), *Democracy in the Administration of Higher Education*. Chapter V. "Some Principles of Democratic Association" by Harold Alberty. New York, Harper and Brothers, 1950, pp. 63-74, *passim*. Copyright, 1950, by Harper and Brothers.

3. An effective teaching procedure recognizes the unity of various learning products, e.g. ideals, attitudes, understandings, appreciations, skills, and treats them as integral parts of the learning situation.
4. The ideals of democracy, the dynamic nature of the individual, the basic principles of motivation suggest that an effective teaching procedure gives a large place to co-operative purposing, planning, working, and evaluating.
5. An effective teaching procedure should take into account the wide range of individual differences which characterizes all groups, however common their purposes may be.
6. An effective teaching procedure should be sufficiently flexible to deal with a wide variety of learning activities.
7. An effective teaching procedure should facilitate the use of a wide variety of resources, such as reference materials, films, and recordings as integral parts of the learning experiences.
8. An effective teaching procedure draws freely upon material from appropriate fields of knowledge.

The Teaching-Learning Unit. If the generalizations presented above are accepted as valid, the time-honored daily-assignment-recitation which continues to be the most widely used procedure in the American high school, must be abandoned. Many of the criticisms of this procedure have been discussed in previous chapters. They need only to be summarized at this point.

The daily recitation procedure (1) is inconsistent with the new psychology of learning, (2) does not provide adequately for individual differences, (3) is destructive of student and teacher initiative, (4) is inadequate for purposes of achieving democratic values, (5) does not lend itself to cooperative teaching, (6) discourages the unifying of subject fields or learning experiences, (7) perpetuates the ground-to-be-covered conception of education, and (8) lends support to the slavish use of the textbook.

As a matter of fact, the procedure has but one thing to recommend it. It provides for a clearly understood and easily administered educational program. Since it has been in use for so long, it has the support of tradition and hence is difficult to change.

The teaching-learning unit is the most promising procedure for carrying into effect the best we have learned from our study of the psychology of learning, and the various movements looking toward

a general unified conception of educational method. Many of these plans have been described briefly in preceding sections of this chapter. Perhaps it is sufficient to state at this point that such a teaching-learning unit involves (1) a broad comprehensive problem, or project which is a common concern of the group, (2) a series of related activities so selected and organized as to provide common learnings for the entire group and individual learning in terms of the specific needs, abilities, and interests of students, and (3) a program of continuous cooperative evaluation of outcomes.

Usually unit teaching involves three stages as follows: (1) the *Planning Stage* in which problems are clarified, alternate plans of work considered, and decisions reached as to how the group shall proceed, (2) an extended *Working Stage* in which there is much group discussion, library research, investigations, experimentation, individual and committee work, and the like, and (3) a *Culminating Stage*, in which results are brought together, conclusions are reached, and results are evaluated.

Why has a plan that has so much to recommend it from the standpoint of educational theory, received so little acceptance in practice? The answer is not difficult to discover. The emphasis upon unit teaching as method has not been accompanied by corresponding emphasis upon the unit as a basis for curriculum reorganization. The result is that teachers have attempted, without marked success, to adapt a fixed textbook-ridden curriculum to the unit approach. Succeeding chapters will attempt to provide concrete suggestions for translating the theory of general method into practice.

SUMMARY

For more than half a century, educators have been trying to develop a concept of general method for organizing group instruction which is consistent with the growing body of knowledge in the areas of learning and human motivation. The movement has been aided by the shift in psychological emphasis from the atomistic to the organismic conception of the nature of the learner and the learning process; by the educational philosophers' attempts to relate learning more closely to democratic values; and by continuous classroom experimentation in translating theory into practice; and by the recent emphasis upon the use of democratic

group process not only in school, but also in many other types of group activity.

Some form of unit teaching, which breaks completely with the daily-ground-to-be-covered conception of education promises most as a means of translating theory into practice. A large body of successful experience is now available to teachers. The formal, highly mechanized unit plans have given way to an informal approach which recognizes that group learning takes place most effectively when problems are identified by the group itself and solved by cooperative group action, under the leadership of a teacher who takes seriously the commitment of the school to promote and refine democratic living.

This new concept of the nature of general method cannot be grafted to a textbook oriented curriculum. The attempt to do so has largely resulted in failure. The method of dealing creatively with learners provides the dynamic for curriculum development. When this important interpretation of the nature of method is fully realized, fundamental improvements will be made in high-school programs.

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CHAPTER X

DEMOCRACY AT WORK IN THE CLASSROOM

One of the most controversial issues in secondary-school curriculum reorganization centers around the extent to which students should participate in the planning and carrying out of school activities. In the early stages of the development of the progressive movement, as a reaction against extreme imposition and regimentation, some educational theorists advocated programs which gave the student the central responsibility for determining how he should spend his time in school. Acting upon this theory, some schools undoubtedly went too far in interpreting freedom as mere absence of restraint. Often the theory was used by weak teachers as an excuse for their inability to exercise adequate school control. Traditional educators, who were not inclined to relinquish the arbitrary authority which they held, and which they believed was essential to inculcate discipline in students as an indispensable preparation for life, seized upon the weaknesses of the progressive movement, frequently exaggerating them. The clash between these two ideologies has never been fully reconciled. Today shortcomings of society are usually laid at the door of the school. To some, these shortcomings are due to the failure of the schools to develop social responsibility through continuous practice. To others, they are due to "soft pedagogy," to the failure of the school to force young people

to face without question the tasks determined by the needs of adult society.

The following is a typical statement of the position set forth above:

But this idea of making education a sort of easy-to-take entertainment leaves the pupil with something less than habits of thought. In the very old-fashioned schools I attended, we were forced to take two subjects every semester that you did *not* like and had little aptitude for. That's how some habits of self-discipline were taught. You had to learn the darned stuff. Sometimes you learned to appreciate it, even like it enough to go on. You discovered that you could buckle down and learn—if you had to.

Learning to face life with some sort of easy-going courses may pass the school day entertainingly but what is learned?

Going light on the homework (we used to have about two hours a night for studying at home—or else!) may give the young people a marvelous week for looking at TV, listening to the radio, going out . . . but what have they learned? . . . Perhaps I'm talking an old-fashioned discipline that shouldn't exist in these days of freedom and progress and leave-me-alone.¹

The concept of discipline has to be interpreted in terms of the kind of behavior which characterizes it. The traditional school sought to develop unquestioned obedience and respect for authority. It was for the schoolmaster to decide what was to be thought and done, and for the students to obey. It is not difficult to see that such an interpretation is well suited to a totalitarian society in which the leaders tell the people what to think and what to do. The new school, however, recognizes that democracy requires a reinterpretation of this concept. If young people are to play their part in the preservation of our freedoms, they must be taught that authorities are to be evaluated, and that only those that promise most for improving democratic living are to be trusted and followed. How else are students to learn to distinguish between the statesman and the demagogue, between truth and propaganda? The school, there-

¹ From George Grim in the *Minneapolis Tribune*, March 14, 1950. This article is a part of the campaign waged in Minneapolis against the so-called "Common Learnings" program. Copyright, 1950, by the Minneapolis Tribune.

fore, seeks to develop the ability to examine authorities critically and to give allegiance to policies and programs which further the social goals of our society. Students must therefore have a voice in planning and carrying into effect the activities which make up the school program. In this manner they learn through the actual processes of living that certain ways of behaving defeat the realization of the goals which they helped to establish, and that other ways of behaving promote the attainment of goals. This is discipline of the most rigorous kind, but it is the only kind which is consistent with the larger values to which we as a people give allegiance. To the uncritical observer, a given school situation in which this kind of behavior is being developed may look like license or anarchy, but once it is seen that such behavior is being *directed by the teacher* toward the development of individuals who assume responsibility for their own conduct, the situation takes on a totally different meaning. Student participation is not a surrender of the teacher to the whims of the students. It is a genuine attempt to teach the values of democracy by living them in the classroom, the shops, the studios, and on the playing fields. Externally imposed discipline gives way to increasing power on the part of students to assume responsibility for their own conduct.

The critics seem to make a virtue out of work that is especially hard and distasteful. Forcing the student to perform inherently disagreeable tasks is supposed to train him for the rigors of life outside the school. Furthermore, such tasks are supposed somehow to "train the mind." What the critics fail to recognize is that much has been discovered in recent years concerning the nature of learning and the conditions under which it takes place most effectively. It is now a commonly recognized principle that learning is most effective when the task is accepted by the learner as being worthwhile and when its accomplishment is accompanied by a feeling of genuine achievement. In other words, students work hard at tasks which have significance in their lives. The modern school, therefore, organizes its program in terms of the problems and functions of present-day living, instead of in terms of the dead past. Thus the life of the immediate and wider community, the problems of growing up in a

rapidly changing culture, the critical issues that confront the world today become the vital points for enlisting the allegiance of young people. And when such allegiance is secured, the "discipline of hard work" takes on new meanings. Habits of persistence, self-discipline, and social responsibility grow directly out of life as it is being lived.

Good schools everywhere are struggling to relate their programs to the realities of living in a complex and confused world. The critics are obligated to use their criticism to further the task, rather than to destroy the gains which have been made.²

THE MEANING OF STUDENT PARTICIPATION

The proper approach then to the problem of student participation in the life of the school is through the interpretation of the true meaning of democracy. While people are bound to disagree upon the details, there is probably general agreement upon the following propositions which have been stated previously in this volume and elsewhere.

1. Democracy is a form of social organization which holds that the optimal development of the individual—of all individuals, represents the highest good.
2. Man achieves optimal development only through acting in concert with his fellows, each individual sensitive to the effects of his acts upon others.
3. The optimal development of all can be realized only to the extent that men have faith in intelligence as a method of solving individual and group problems.
4. The ideal of optimal development requires that all individuals who have a stake in a given enterprise participate in planning and carrying it into effect.³

The translation of these principles into ways of living in the school is the major task of education today. Unless young people have wide

² The above discussion is adapted from Harold Albery and others. *Let's Look at the Attack on the Schools*. Columbus, Ohio, The Ohio State University Press, 1951 (Mimeo).

³ Harold Benjamin, ed., *Democracy in the Administration of Higher Education*. Chapter V. "Some Principles of Democratic Association" by Harold Albery, pp. 63-64. Copyright, 1950, by Harper and Brothers, New York.

Democracy at Work in the Classroom

opportunities to experience democracy in their daily living; there is little chance that they will become staunch defenders of democracy. We may multiply courses in the social studies, extend the program of "extra-" curricular activities, and bombard the student with propaganda for democracy—but these means are likely to be of little avail unless students have continuous and varied opportunities for responsible participation in the planning and carrying out of classroom activities.

THE CONVENTIONAL HIGH SCHOOL LAGS

What opportunities does the student in the conventional high school have to develop the attitudes and understandings called for if he is to be prepared for democratic citizenship? The curriculum is set up in advance through narrow courses of study or adopted text and workbooks which prescribe the ground to be covered, sometimes in the form of daily lessons. In these cases, democratic participation is out of the question. The important decisions have been made long before the student arrives upon the scene. In the extra-curricular field the situation is different. Here the students exercise considerable control over their clubs and organizations. Democratic living has ample opportunity to function, in some cases with too little participation by teachers. These activities are correctly regarded as curricular, but the very fact that sharp differences in the extent of cooperative action exist between the classroom and the "activities period" indicates the lack of a consistent program in which the student sees the entire life of the school as a unity, as an opportunity for democratic participation.

EXTENDING THE OPPORTUNITIES FOR STUDENT PARTICIPATION

Any successful attempt to extend the program of student participation depends, of course, upon the attitude of the school. It needs to re-examine the values which it holds to be significant in education. If it regards the acquisition of subject matter as of supreme importance, then cooperative planning is justified on the ground that if the student participates to some extent in the determination of activities

and procedures, he will be happier and learn more subject matter. Thus, cooperative planning becomes a device to carry out purposes that are usually external to the student's life. If, on the other hand, the school is thoroughly committed to the thesis that the most important values in education are intimately associated with the ability and zeal to work together for the common good, and that the best way to prepare for democratic citizenship is through practicing it in the day-to-day life of the school, then the way lies open to a genuine extension of the opportunities for cooperative teacher-student planning. But such a decision is not easy to make because it involves the subordination of the learning of fixed quotas of subject matter to learning the techniques of democratic action by practicing them. Subject-matter values have the sanction of long tradition, and the procedures for developing them are better understood by the academically trained teacher. Nevertheless, even in the conventional school much can be done if there is an appreciation of the value of cooperative action.

SOME PRINCIPLES INVOLVED IN STUDENT PARTICIPATION

1. *Student participation in planning and carrying out learning activities is more successful in a school which has a vital program of administrator-teacher determination of school policy.* Cooperative curriculum planning among teachers and students does not flourish in an atmosphere of autocracy. Where teachers have no voice in the determination of school policy, the formulation of school purposes, or the conditions under which they work, there is little likelihood that democracy in the classroom will be extensively practiced. In the first place, a school administrator who exercises autocratic controls would frown upon any widespread attempt on the part of the teachers to extend democracy to students, for this would be a glaring inconsistency which would soon threaten existing administrative policy. In the second place, such administration is usually accompanied by a rigid curriculum organization which leaves few decisions to be made by teachers and students. In the third place, teachers who are forced to live in an autocratic atmosphere

are loath to jeopardize their security by introducing cooperative classroom planning.

The situation is quite different when the administrator conceives his principal function to be the stimulation of teachers through the continuous use of democratic processes. In such a situation the teaching staff, under the guidance of the administrator, assumes responsibility for group decisions concerning all of the problems that vitally concern the school.⁴

In several schools known to the author, the staff elects an executive committee of which the principal is *ex officio* chairman, which plans faculty meetings, appoints all committees, meets at stated times for a discussion of school problems which are ultimately brought before the faculty for final decision, unless the committee has been given "power to act" by the faculty. An interesting example of the work of such a committee is found in the Ohio State University school. The following quotation explains the plan:

At the request of the director, in the spring of 1939, an executive committee was elected by the faculty to give advice on administrative problems, while major matters of policy are discussed and decided by the whole faculty. The responsibilities of the executive committee have become very broad. Budget matters are referred to it, including maintenance allotments for the various areas and salaries of the staff. The committee also recommends concerning faculty rank. Twelve standing committees through which the faculty works are appointed by this central group. At the opening of schools in October, each faculty member names the committees on which he prefers to serve. In the light of these preferences, assignments are made. It is recognized that an intelligent adult should know where he can serve most happily and effectively. Of interest in this connection is the fact that students in conducting their school affairs have worked out a similar procedure, choosing committees from volunteers for work on a particular project. Interested effort is thus the rule, and it is seldom necessary to compel either student or faculty mem-

⁴ For illustrations of democratic faculty participation, see the following: G. Robert Koopman, Alice Miel, and Paul Misner, *Democracy in School Administration*. New York, D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1943. Arthur D. Hollingshead, *Guidance in Democratic Living*. New York, D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1941. Hollis L. Caswell and associates, *Curriculum Improvement in Public School Systems*. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1950.

ber to assist with a given activity. In addition to directing faculty organization, the executive committee often makes recommendations concerning disciplinary problems, all school enterprises, or matters of policy referred to it by director or faculty.⁵

This plan has been in continuous use in the school since its inception. The fact that the school has become nationally known for its emphasis upon student participation in curriculum development is evidence that such participation flowers in a democratic environment.

Another interesting example of a climate that fosters democratic teacher-student relationships is reported by Caswell and associates:

Glencoe (Ill.) has a democratic organization which is designed to bring out the best in every individual associated with us, not by administrative order, but through self-realization.

We have three schools, located in the north, center, and south sections of the town. Our total school population is about 900, and we have about fifty-five teachers to guide their education. Since we are a small organization, informality is easy. One of the first impressions visitors receive as they observe our teachers is our warm friendly relationship. We call each other by first names, as any close friends do. This is an honest expression of the basic fact that we enjoy each other. Rank and title in themselves merit no respect with us. Our respect goes deeper. It is measured in terms of what we do, not what we are called. Thus, when the superintendent is greeted, "Hi, Paul," it is an honest expression of close personal regard, and not an artificial demonstration. . . .

The mechanical organization of the staff is as described in the following paragraphs.

The *general faculty* unit consists of the total teaching and Administrative staff. This group elects its chairman annually and meets regularly—at least once each month—to carry on group discussions of all matters pertaining to the schools and to take group action in these matters. In this way all school matters, curricular and otherwise, are given full con-

⁵ *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story*, pp. 727-728. Copyright, 1943, by Harper & Brothers, New York. See also Harold Fawcett, "We Choose Our Director," *Educational Method*, XVIII, 402-407 (May, 1939). For the students' view of this problem see: Class of 1938, University High School, The Ohio State University, *Were We Guinea Pigs?* New York, Henry Holt, 1938.

sideration in an open meeting where everyone can say what he feels. Thus working takes place without the full knowledge and consent of the total staff. General faculty meetings are never occasions for the administration to announce decisions on which the staff has had no opportunity to act. We do everything cooperatively. What this means in staff understanding and support must be self-evident.⁶

It is not surprising that a democratically conceived policy-making program such as has been described would carry over into the classroom. This phase of the program is described as follows:

Our classrooms contain groups of children living together in normal human relationships. There is freedom but no license. Individuals are respected but they also show respect. There is democratic planning and group agreement. Teaching is individualized. We use no textbooks; instead, we have many books on every level of ability. There are no arbitrary "grade" standards which pull accelerated students down to mediocrity and pull slow students up toward goals impossible of attainment. We take each child where he is and help him to grow from there. The whole group might be learning about electricity but some children will be reading primary books on the subject while others will be using advanced encyclopedic material on the same topic. We believe in individual differences and strive to help each child progress as fast and as far as he can go. Neither the slow nor the gifted pupil should be held to a mythical "grade level," but each should go to the maximum of his own level.⁷

While democratic school policy-making facilitates planning by individual teachers and students, it would be a mistake to assume that the individual teacher can do nothing apart from an organized group program, for the resourceful teacher will always find ways of rising above the general level. There is no denying the fact, however, that he will be confronted by grave difficulties and serious limitations unless he has the support of the administration.

2. Student participation is more successful in a school in which

⁶ Hollis L. Caswell and Associates, *Curriculum Improvement in Public School Systems*. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1950, pp. 173-174. Copyright, 1950, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 189.

the entire school staff is committed to the same general philosophy and practices in the classroom. This principle is a logical extension of the one stated above, which held that student participation flourishes in an atmosphere of democratic organization and administration. At this point will be emphasized the value of a common program of democratic action. Rather extended observation of school practices indicates that the greatest strides in cooperative planning have been made by teachers in core programs. One reason for this is the fact that curricular materials for such courses, fortunately, have not been standardized and organized logically. The result has been that student participation has been greatly encouraged in such courses, partly because of sheer necessity and partly because such courses have been taught by teachers who are interested in improving their classroom procedures. Frequently, and this was particularly true of some of the Eight-Year Study schools, much emphasis was placed upon reorganization in the core area, leaving the elective courses, which for the most part are composed of organized subjects, somewhat out of the picture. Thus, we might find a situation in which the cooperative planning of units of work was the regular practice in the core, and teacher-made assignments, often on the daily basis, were customary in the other aspects of the curriculum. It is easy to see how this resulted in much confusion on the part of the student. For example, he would spend the first two periods of the day in the core class in which the group might devote the entire time in organizing itself into committees to explore various aspects of housing, or even in deciding what aspects of housing should be studied. At the close of this period, he would go to his science class in which he followed the directions in the laboratory manual for verifying Archimedes' principle, which he had already learned during the preceding class period. Naturally he would wonder about the difference and would attempt to evaluate the contrasting procedures in terms of the values that he held at the time. No one would object to such an evaluation provided there existed good reasons for marked differences, but if such differences are merely the result of a failure of the school to operate in terms of a common philosophy,

conclusions reached by the student are apt to be based upon false premises.

Are there fundamental and inherent differences in the various subjects or areas which call for rigid procedures in some, and flexible procedures in others? It is doubtful if a good case could be made for such differences. The differences are more likely to be found in the attitude of the teacher than in the nature of the area. Student participation in planning and carrying out classroom activities can play a significant role in every aspect of the curriculum, provided teachers are sensitive to the values which are possible of realization. Obviously, these values will be realized more effectively if all members of the teaching staff work together.

3. Student participation in classroom planning is not a substitute for curriculum pre-planning on the part of the school and the teacher. Unfortunately, in the early days of the progressive movement, some teachers interpreted the philosophy underlying democratic participation to mean that students should determine the activities which they wished to pursue without much, if any, guidance from the teacher. Other teachers became so zealous in promoting teacher-student planning that they tended to forget the setting in which it took place and the part which they played in the planning process. When they wrote of their experiences, one often gained the impression, perhaps erroneously, that the student made all the decisions without the help of the teacher.

If we face the problem realistically, we must recognize, first of all, that the ideals, values, and purposes of the school are defined by the school's responsibility for promoting and refining democratic living. They are not a matter of whim or caprice. All that the school does must further these purposes, if it is to continue to retain the support of society. Second, it must be recognized that needs are not always recognized by students, and third, that the school owes an obligation to students to see to it that they grow optimally in all the aspects of living, in terms of their own potentialities. All this means that the school must have over-all purposes to which all members of the teaching staff hold allegiance, and that some general curriculum

structure that will guarantee the development of the democratic personality must be developed and accepted by all. Problem areas or broad comprehensive units which give promise of providing richness of experience in personal and community living may be set up without violating the creative process.

Schools will vary, of course, in the extent to which they will pre-plan broad curricular areas, but most educators will agree that this pre-planning is essential and that it must not be left to "the inspiration of the moment." Students are quick to recognize the necessity for such pre-planning, and they accept it is a necessary aspect of their education. It is within this framework that democratic teacher-student activities take root and develop. For example, the school may decide that students at a certain level require experiences related to the life of the community. The scope and precise nature of these experiences may well be left to teacher-student decision.

4. *The values of student participation need to be well understood and accepted by parents and the general public.* Most parents received their education in rather formal situations. They are accustomed to think of education as so much ground to be covered in the form of daily assignments from textbooks. Many of them have had no opportunity to reorient themselves in terms of the school's function to provide training in democratic citizenship. Consequently, they are apt to think of the time spent by the teacher and students in initiating a unit of work as wasted. In the school *they* attended, the textbooks were on hand the first day of school and the teachers made their assignments. Study and recitation began immediately. In their present lives, they spend much time in defining and clarifying their problems and in planning their solution, but they tend not to identify this process with what is done in school. In other words, there is a wide gap between school and life that cannot be bridged without help.

If parents have been called upon in the formulation and clarification of the school's purposes, and if procedures for realizing these purposes have been discussed with them, and perhaps demonstrated to them, attitudes are bound to change, for parents want their chil-

dren to become self-reliant, socially sensitive, thinking individuals, and they can readily be made to comprehend that direct experience in the practice of these values is much more valuable than the acquisition of knowledge about them.

5. Student participation is more successful in a school that is committed to meeting the needs of students, solving their problems, and extending and enriching their interests. This principle needs little discussion at this point for it has been stressed earlier that in order to have vital student participation in planning, developing, and evaluating classroom activities, there must be something about which decisions have to be made. Regimentation in terms of daily quotas of subject matter to be learned leaves little or nothing to decide. It is a truism to say that human beings think as they are confronted with problematic situations which call for novel adjustments. At other times, they act in routine ways which call for little or no change in behavior. It follows, then, that student participation assumes real meaning in a group only when decisions have to be made in order to achieve ends that are understood and accepted. There is no question about the need for planning when a boy undertakes to build a radio, or when a group proposes to investigate the recreational facilities of the community. The need is not so apparent when the group is expected to cover the "next" chapter of the textbook.

6. Successful student participation involves the continuous use of the method of intelligence, and an ever-increasing appreciation of the role of that method in solving human problems. Democracy involves the making of individual and group decisions based on the method of intelligence as opposed to the blind acceptance of conclusions imposed by others. This process involves the solution of problems by formulating hypotheses, examining all available data, reaching conclusions upon the basis of the data, and acting upon the decisions that are reached. It is only when this same method is applied to the life of the school that student participation is successful.

In cases where the problem involves the selection and planning of units of work, the teacher and students working together will set

up criteria or guiding principles which are to be followed as the work proceeds. These criteria will, of course, vary from group to group and year to year. The following steps are typical of the procedure of the Ohio State University School:

1. Preliminary survey of pupils' background and needs.
2. Setting up of criteria for choice of a worthwhile group experience.
3. Examination of a range of worthwhile group experiences in the light of the criteria set up.
4. Cooperative choice of the best possible experience, with teacher responsibility for so directing the activity as to determine whether the choice fits into the needs of the pupil and the culture.
5. Caring for the rights of the minority.
6. Actual division of labor and working out of experience.
7. Revision of the group's working plans as needs dictate.
8. Evaluation of the group's work upon completion of the group experience or unit.
9. Transitions into other units by a technique similar to that mentioned above.⁸

A similar, though somewhat more elaborate plan has been used in the Denver, Colorado, high schools. The outline follows:

A. Preliminary planning

1. Teachers and pupils set up criteria for the selection of a problem.
2. Teachers and pupils list a number of problems suggested by both and consider how well each meets the criteria set up.
3. Teachers and pupils select the problem which seems most significant to the group and consider ways to provide for the interest of the minority.
4. Teachers and pupils set up objectives which the class as a whole is seeking in the problem; both general and individual outcomes are indicated.
5. The limits of the problem are set and the various aspects with which the class is to deal are chosen.
6. Each individual decides upon his own share in the work and plans how he can best contribute to the outcome desired.

B. Planning for materials to be used and for activities of the class, including the selection of pupil committees. . . .

⁸ *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story*, p. 739. Copyright, 1937, by Harper and Brothers, New York.

C. Period of research and study

1. Teachers and pupils attack the problem by means of a variety of activities, among which may be:
 - a. Reading in many kinds of sources . . .
 - b. Interviewing persons in the school itself and in the community.
 - c. Listening to the radio.
 - d. Taking field trips into the community.
 - e. Using visual aids in the form of slides, moving pictures, maps, charts, diagrams, models, photographs, cartoons, paintings, sculpture, crafts of all kinds, buildings, and the like.
 - f. Listening to speakers who are outstanding in their field.
 - g. Deliberating and studying by groups of pupils and by individuals in the class.
- D. Planning for reports on the information gained and the organization of conclusions reached for presentation to the class as a whole.
- E. Presentation of reports and conclusions before the group, in the form of panels, individual reports, a mural, an exhibit of graphs and charts, a series of drawings or paintings, figurines, a motion picture made by the class, and the like.
- F. Planning for the evaluation of the unit in the light of the objectives agreed upon in the beginning. (Such plans are made at the beginning of the unit as well as when the unit is nearing an end.)
- G. Evaluating the unit of work to discover how far the understandings and outcomes, originally set up by the group in the form of objectives, have been met both for the group and for individuals in the group.
- H. A study by the group of possible leads from this unit into the next.⁹

It is evident from the above quotations that the process of cooperative participation is a continuous one which extends from the beginning of the unit to the close. It will be noted also that the process involves the use of the method of intelligence at all stages.

But it is not enough that students have continuous practice in the use of the method of intelligence in working with their fellows on common problems. In addition, they must come to see that what they are doing is the essence of democratic living as it is carried on outside of the school. This means that the process must be intellectualized by periodic reference to the way the procedures carried on in the classroom are practiced in the solution of problems of community and national life: .

⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 179-181.

7. Successful student participation begins at the level at which the group is capable of working, and is extended only as the group achieves new insights and increased competence in thinking and working together. Living democratically is not a gift that is bestowed upon people, but rather is won by continuous struggle, by making and correcting mistakes, by the continuous re-examination and revision of procedures. In short, it is won by increasing capacity to utilize the method of intelligence and increasing reliance upon that method of solving problems of common concern. In this way, the American people have gradually broadened the narrow concept of political democracy to include social and economic democracy. A people that has had no training in the functioning of democracy cannot be expected to change their modes of behavior suddenly. Similarly, a school that has exercised arbitrary controls cannot suddenly shift to complete reliance upon democratic processes, either in administrative policy making or in classroom curricular decision making.

In the beginning, then, the teacher must make some estimate of the ability of the group to think and work cooperatively, in terms of background, attitudes, and maturity level. If the students have found security, as many of them do, in definite assignments of work to be done, at first they will not take kindly to a program of cooperative planning if it involves too much uncertainty as to procedures and too much responsibility for the determination of outcomes. Students who are not aware of the purposes of student participation, the development of democratic values, are apt to consider it a waste of time. One such student remarked that she thought the class ought to have very long units, so that they would not have to stop working so frequently to plan new ones! Perhaps all that could be expected in a group unaccustomed to cooperative action, and hence unskilled in its technique, would be to plan an occasional trip or special class activity. From these simple beginnings, group participation might be gradually extended to include supplementary projects of various sorts, and finally to the actual selection, planning, and carrying out of a unit of work.

It is the teacher's responsibility to see to it that cooperative action is intelligent and educative. If it bogs down into interminable discussions, bitter conflict, and aimless wandering, it is deserving of all the criticism that has been heaped upon it by conventional educators. The wise teacher will recognize the points at which decisions should be made and will keep the group working constructively and effectively. If he cannot do this without resorting to coercion, it is probably evidence that he has made a mistake in judging the level at which the group can work cooperatively. In this case, he will have to start again at a lower level.

This point is well illustrated by a report by Hugh Laughlin, then a teacher at the Ohio University School. The group had agreed upon criteria for the selection of units of work and were in the process of deciding upon a unit from a list of suggestions made by various members of the group

The list of suggested topics was finished at the end of one of the class periods and a day elapsed before the class resumed work on the unit selection. The teacher noticed that most of the contributions in the ensuing discussion came from the three boys who were interested in the unit on astronomy. The rest of the class remained quiet and even on direct questioning were hesitant in stating their interests or views. As the group continued the work of checking the suggestions against the standards, it was clear that the situation was one of "all good" for astronomy and "all bad" for the other suggestions. The teacher becoming aware of the pressures that had been put on behind the scenes, stopped the class work to ask: "How many think it best to study astronomy?" Over half the class responded to the effect that they thought astronomy best. The teacher's next question was, "You know that to be your judgment even before we have finished checking through the whole list?" The nods of the students were in the affirmative. "How did you come to that decision?" No response.

What had happened was certainly not desirable but on the other hand, not too unusual in the unit selection experience. The entire group had been influenced by the boys who held leadership positions in the class. As the situation was explored more fully, it became evident that it did not matter to the voting students that astronomy was not strong when checked against the standards set by the class. Nor was the study of astronomy a real desire of the larger portion of the class that had responded in the af-

firmative to the teacher's first question. The class readily agreed that the selection had been made on the playing field, at the lunch table, and in the shower room by the vocal minority of three boys.

Attention was given to the three boys who had forsaken most of the standards agreed on by the class and had made their choice in terms of personal desire and interest. It was suggested to the other members of the class that they had allowed themselves to be placed in the position of having no substantiated choice but had had their choice made for them by the "politicians." The class agreed that everyone's action had been hasty and possibly unintelligent. The teacher then ruled that astronomy would have to be removed from the list of possible units, explaining that if it were left and selected, it would never be known whether or not the choice had been an intelligent one. To all but a few this action seemed fair and justified. All three of the leaders agreed that it was proper.

As the work continued, all of the suggestions, except "Russia" and "World Battlefronts Where American Boys Are Fighting," were eliminated as not meeting some of the standards. "Our Houses After the War" and "Postwar Aviation" were discarded after advising with the librarian. "The Part the Farmer Played in the War" met every standard except the one which suggests that the unit should be broad enough to include the interests of all. The "Our School" suggestion was eliminated because some felt it not "up-to-date" and most felt that it was not big enough for the length of time the class had in mind for the study. The remaining suggestions, "Russia" and "World Battlefronts Where Our Boys Are Fighting" were expanded by making first-step organizations, and the decision was finally made by mutual agreement to change the title of the "Battlefronts" suggestion to "World Battlefronts Where the Soldiers of the United Nations are Fighting," which would include the "Russia" suggestion. This was agreed and the decision was made. The unit had been selected.

After the selection had been made, one of the three boys who had been a leader in the "astronomy" suggestion mentioned that as a result of their experience the class had made a choice that was entirely theirs. He seemed very proud of this class accomplishment. The girls called attention to the fact that they had been in on all discussions and they were very proud of themselves for their accomplishment. The teacher was aware that the class went forward in its work with a feeling of unity which had not been evident before. The unit resulted from working together and moving from the realm of disagreements and disunity to a situation of agreement, harmony, and the unity of "seventh-grade fellowship."

The teacher stepped in when the method of intelligence failed to function in order to save a situation which tended to defeat the

attainment of the goals of democratic participation. Actually the failure of the democratic process was utilized as a means of helping the students appreciate more fully the values of democracy.¹⁰

8. *Participation by laymen in various phases of curriculum development is a logical extension of student participation in the classroom.* As groups study the vital problems that affect them, it becomes increasingly difficult to confine such study to the classroom, for most of the problems of community life impinge directly upon young people. These problems must be attacked in cooperation with adults. When this happens, the line between school and community is obliterated. The Parker High School provides interesting illustrations of this principle:

In Parker District, more and more, the community is becoming our school. As we try to meet the needs of the boys and girls in the school, we find ourselves turning to the community for help, and as we do so, we see numerous opportunities for helping our students by assisting them to become an important part of the community and of its efforts to improve. We have found in our community a wide field for study and practical application of the skills learned in the classroom—a field where most of our high-school classes frequently visit, study, and work. In addition, individuals whose experiences provide information concerning the community are often asked to the school to talk to classes, or are interviewed by students. As all of this activity has gone on, the people, too, have found more and more ways of using the school, its facilities and personnel, pupils and teachers. We feel that this closer contact with people in the community has made possible more cooperative planning and working for school-community improvement, for improvement of homes; for better leisure time activities, and for other experiences that will help each student assume his proper role in community life.¹¹

The following are just a few of the many projects which are common in the Parker School:

1. Community survey in cooperation with the community council.
2. Clean-up campaign.
3. Red Cross work.

¹⁰ See Chapter XII for principles of democratic discussion.

¹¹ *The Parker High School Serves Its People.* Southern Association Study. Greenville (S. C.), The Parker School District, 1942, p. 60.

4. Recreation program for younger children.
5. Junior employment bureau to locate part-time jobs for students.
6. Dramatic presentation in the community.
7. Round-table discussions at community group meetings.
8. Clerical assistance to community organizations.
9. Planting and canning projects.
10. Assistance to taxpayers in filling out income tax blanks.
11. Establishment of a "Christmas shoppers' nursery."
12. Operation of motion-picture projectors for community groups.¹²

Here again the school needs to start on the level at which community resources may be used effectively, keeping in mind that curriculum development is a professional job and that final decisions must be made by the school staff with the approval, of course, of the board of education. But within this limitation, the school may work closely with appropriate community agencies for their mutual benefit.¹³

The foregoing discussion has set forth the background conditions which must prevail if democracy is to have an opportunity to function in the classroom. The practical applications of these principles will be illustrated in Chapter XIII which describes in concrete terms the way students participated in the various phases of the learning process in four different school situations.

SUMMARY

Student participation is an attempt to translate the basic principles of democratic living in terms of the day-to-day life of the school. Contrary to the belief of many people, it does not mean that students are allowed to do as they please, but rather that the activities that make up the curriculum of the student be planned and carried out through the cooperative thinking of the teacher and his students. The teacher does not abdicate, but assumes such control over the situation as will facilitate the achievement of democratic values and the efficient carrying out of purposes and plans.

¹² For complete descriptions of these and many more projects see, *Ibid.*, p. 67-78.

¹³ For numerous illustrations of lay participation in curriculum making see: Helen Storen, *Laymen Help Plan the Curriculum*. Washington, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1946. See also Hollis L. Caswell and associates, *op. cit.*, Chapter IV.

Since teacher-student planning is a process rather than an end result, it is to be expected that the extent of such planning will be conditioned by the ability and willingness of the students to assume their proportionate share of responsibility. The teacher has to start at the level on which the class can think and work cooperatively and move to higher levels in terms of the maturity level of the group and its growth in the ability to assume greater responsibility. This way of working with students is bound to have far-reaching effects upon the logically organized curriculum.

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CHAPTER XI

GUIDANCE IN THE CLASSROOM

There is probably no area of high-school education in which more confusion exists than in the meaning of guidance and its application to the curriculum. And this confusion is more than academic, for it results in confused practices in the high school.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF GUIDANCE

This situation is more readily understood if guidance is considered in its historical perspective. The educational use of the term began in 1908 in connection with vocational placement, and for some time was applied only to the organized efforts of a school to find suitable jobs for high-school students in terms of their desires, vocational aptitudes, and training. So firmly did this limited concept become entrenched that even at the present time many people think of guidance primarily in terms of helping young people to find their places in the vocational world. As the high-school population increased and the formal curricular offerings expanded, a need arose for educational guidance, and the concept was extended to include the help given to the student in choosing the curriculum best fitted to his present and future needs. The increased complexity of the culture, the increased number of broken homes because of mounting divorce rates, increased sensitivity to problems of mental hygiene and problems of health, all contributed to further the expansion of the meaning of the term, so that present-day writers classify guidance activities in terms of the many facets of the help given to young people in solving their problems, e.g., vocational, moral, social, and educa-

tional. In most cases, these new functions were taken over by the school as supplementary activities, without changing to any great extent the formal curriculum offerings. An exception to this statement is the addition to the formal curriculum of such courses as "occupational civics," "economic civics," or "guidance." These courses were usually offered early in the junior high-school period and were designed to orient the student primarily to the world of vocations, and secondarily to the educational opportunities offered by the school. In the larger schools, these added functions were performed by new personnel known as counselors, deans of boys, deans of girls, or co-ordinators. In the smaller schools, they were assigned to the regular classroom teachers. In both cases, however, the classroom and guidance functions were regarded as quite separate and distinct. Many modern writers still hold to this distinction, as we shall see when we examine the present meaning of the term, guidance.

THE MEANING OF GUIDANCE

Authorities in the field of guidance seem to be in fair agreement on the meaning of guidance. The earlier definitions do not differ materially from those accepted today. A typical definition of the earlier period is as follows:

Guidance in the secondary school refers to that aspect of the educational program which is concerned especially with helping the pupil to become adjusted to his present situation and to plan his future in line with his interests, abilities and social needs.¹

Several years later, Chisholm expressed essentially the same idea this way:

Guidance seeks to have each individual become familiar with a wide range of information about himself, his interests, his abilities, his previous development in the various areas of living, and his plans or ambitions for the future. Guidance then seeks to help him become acquainted with the various problems of social, vocational, and recreational adjustment which he faces. Out of the training and experience the individual gets in meeting

¹ Shirley A. Hamrin, and Clifford E. Erickson, *Guidance in the Secondary School*. New York, D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1939, pp. 1-2.

and solving his problems while in school, guidance aims to develop in him insight into the solution of his problems of living as well as a creative initiative whereby he will throughout life be able to meet and solve his own problems adequately.²

Both of these statements are but other ways of stating the purpose of *education* in the modern school. One might substitute the word, "education," for guidance without in any way changing the meaning of the quotations. If this be true, why use the term, guidance, at all?

The definitions stated above are further re-enforced and extended by the definition of guidance offered by Stiles and Dorsey:

The major emphasis in guidance, as it is being advocated today, is placed on the provision of self-determination or self-guidance and on the function of guidance being mainly a matter of enabling individuals to make intelligent decisions on their own account. Most of the definitions of guidance, some of which are quite complex, can be stated simply by saying that *guidance is a process of helping individuals and groups of individuals to make choices relative to recognized problems, the solution of which will lead to continued adjustment.*³

It is true that these definitions of guidance emphasize the "personnel point of view," and to the guidance specialist this is a concept quite foreign to mass instruction in the traditional manner, but just to the extent that the high school conceives its function as that of helping the adolescent meet his needs and solve his problems, it organizes its curriculum for this purpose, and again the distinction between education and guidance tends to disappear.

This is not to claim or imply that the guidance movement as such has not made important contributions to the modern theory of teaching and learning. A few of these should be mentioned.

1. It has stressed the need for continuous study of individual differences among students in terms of capacities and interests.
2. It has emphasized the importance of the physical and mental health aspects of development.

² Leslie L. Chisholm, *Guiding Youth in the Secondary School*, p. 3. Copyright, 1945, by The American Book Co., New York.

³ Lindley J. Stiles, and Mattie Dorsey, *Democratic Teaching in Secondary Schools*. New York, J. B. Lippincott Company, 1950, p. 238. (*Italics in original*).

3. It has centered attention upon the need for better personnel records to replace the barren records of subjects taken and marks received.
4. It has developed and popularized the use of interest and aptitude testing, as a supplement to the standardized subject-matter tests which are often the only kind of tests given in a school.
5. It has emphasized the need for individual counseling, and has provided much help in the refinement and use of counseling techniques.

It is possible to recognize these contributions and still to insist that the above contributions *ought* to be part and parcel of the modern curriculum and utilized by the teacher in the day-to-day work of the classroom.

THE TRADITIONAL HIGH SCHOOL AND GUIDANCE

We conclude that the definitions of modern guidance and education are essentially the same. Why has it been necessary for the guidance agencies and the curriculum, which in the modern school embraces all of the student activities carried on under the direction of the school, to exist side by side as separate entities? The answer is to be found in the character of the traditional high-school curriculum. While theoretically it has always been claimed that organized subjects met the needs of students, as a matter of fact these subjects have been far removed from the actual problems which youth face in the modern world. What problems are met, for example, through the typical course in world history, classical or modern language, advanced mathematics, or literature? For the student who expects to attend college and has been strongly motivated to prepare for the college entrance examinations, such subjects undoubtedly meet a need, however remote the actual content may be from his present-day living. But what of the large numbers of students who have no desire or expectation of going to college? For them these subjects represent mere hurdles to be jumped in the process of getting a high-school diploma or arriving at the end of the compulsory education period. In a wider sense, of course, the "good" student finds security and a sense of achievement in being able to perform successfully the tasks set by the school, however meaningless they may be in terms of his present living. Some subjects may even provide a

necessary means of temporary escape from the stern realities that he faces on the playground or in his social life outside the school. If the above picture is accurate, then is it fair to ask where youth turns for a solution of his problems?

Extra-Curricular Activities. Many schools that still prize the traditional subjects, possibly for their disciplinary value, have organized elaborate programs of extra-curricular activities,—sometimes known as “co-curricular” or “Student Activities.” In spite of the change in terminology they are still, for the most part, “extra.”⁴ These programs, however divorced they may be from the work of the classroom, have significant potentialities for meeting student needs. As a matter of fact, it is easier to justify them on the basis of the objectives of education in a democratic society than many of the recognized curricular activities. Through the student council the student has an opportunity to participate successfully in socially significant activities, through assembly programs he may satisfy his need for creative self-expression; through the athletic program he meets many of the health needs and learns many lessons in group responsibility; through the various clubs he may develop hobbies such as photography, collecting, and the construction of gliders and airplanes; through the various social activities, he may solve many of his problems of face-to-face relationship with the opposite sex; through the school newspaper and dramatic societies he meets his need for social recognition.

But these activities are, at best, outside the regular channels of the life of the school. The principal business of the school involves the daily schedule of classes, with the necessary grades and marks, and the accumulation of the sixteen units that are prescribed for graduation. To determine whether an activity is “regular” or “extra,” it is only necessary to ask whether or not credit toward graduation is granted for it. The answer reveals the activities that the school actually prizes. It is not uncommon for schools to grant “extra credit”

⁴ For a more optimistic note, see: Ellsworth Tompkins, *The Activity Period in Public High Schools*, Bulletin 1951, No. 19, Washington, Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, 1951.

for certain activities carried on outside of the regular classes, such as glee clubs, athletics, or home projects in gardening or canning. Since, however, these activities do not meet the definition of the Carnegie unit, such credits are supplementary, over and above the sixteen units required for graduation. Usually they are not accepted by the colleges to meet entrance requirements.

It is not difficult to see that a school organized as described above would need some "organized service" to meet the needs of the student. Such a service would help him to make the appropriate adjustment to his classes and to solve problems of personal adjustment which "interfere with progress," but it should be pointed out that much of this need for a systematic guidance program grows out of the failure of the school to meet its obligations to youth through an appropriate curricular organization.

Homeroom Programs. As one way of remedying the situation, schools have adopted comprehensive homeroom programs, which have a multiplicity of purposes, such as record keeping, supervised planning for class or school social affairs, and guidance. In most instances homerooms are rather ineffective for guidance purposes, not only because of lack of time, but also because the organization is external to the ongoing life of the students, both in and out of the school. In many schools the homeroom has degenerated into "an administrative device for checking attendance, making announcements, keeping pupil records, and preparing reports. . . ." ⁵

The Special Counselor. Another way of bridging the gap in the conventional school between guidance and the curriculum is for the principal, or someone designated by him, to act as co-ordinator or counselor. He advises students as to appropriate courses, deals with disciplinary cases, gives tests, interviews students with respect to their vocational interests, co-ordinates the work of the homeroom teachers, particularly with reference to all-school affairs, and has charge of records and reports. As the school becomes larger, specially

⁵ Vernon E. Anderson, Paul R. Grim, and William T. Gruhn, *Principles and Practices of Secondary Education*. New York, The Ronald Press, 1951, p. 333. For illustrations of good practices, see Ruth Fedder, *Guiding Homeroom and Club Activities*. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1949.

qualified guidance experts are employed to take care of the various types of help that students need, vocational, mental, health, social, and the like. Very frequently these guidance specialists have had no preparation for curriculum work and have very little interest in it. Thus an elaborate systematically organized program of guidance gradually develops which is often quite external to the day-to-day classroom work of the students and also quite apart from the work of the classroom teacher.

THE MODERN HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM AND GUIDANCE

The purpose of the discussion up to this point has been to attempt to clear up the confusion between education and guidance and to show that many current practices in guidance originate in the failure of the traditional school to meet fully the obligations placed upon it by our complex democratic culture. We now turn to the resources of the modern high school for carrying out the functions described as "guidance" in the definitions quoted in the preceding section.

Role of the High School. As was pointed out in Chapter II, the task of education is that of helping all children and youth to meet their needs and to secure the values, understandings, and skills needed for their own development and the fullest participation in democratic living. This sets the stage for the discussion of guidance in the modern high school.

Unifying the Curriculum and Extra-Curriculum. The total life of the school should be dedicated to the achievement of this task, and the curriculum broadly interpreted is the chief resource which the school utilizes. The differences between the curriculum and the extra-curriculum tend to disappear because the so-called extra-curriculum, which provides a large measure of direct experience, becomes a part of the regular work of the classroom. The photography club is absorbed into the regular work of the science area. The language club becomes indistinguishable from what goes on in the modern language classroom; the school newspaper and the dramatic clubs are vehicles of the language-arts area for achieving its purposes. The glider club is a way, used by the arts (or science)

area, of providing for the diversified interests of students. School government is a means of vitalizing social science (or core) instruction. Intramural athletic programs are but concrete expressions of the health program of the school. The school assembly is an extension of the work of all classrooms, not something external to them. Even the school lunchroom becomes an integral part of the instructional program, as menus are planned by home economics classes, and the system of accounting is taken over by the mathematics, commercial, or consumer-science area. The accomplishment of such a program of unification cannot take place unless the principal objective of "covering ground" gives way to the purposes stated above. When organized subject matter is seen as a means of meeting and solving problems, the covering of ground becomes of secondary importance. This seriously violates the conception of the Carnegie unit, but that historic device is already considerably questioned by educators and is probably on its way out.

Tompkins makes this interesting observation on extra-class activities in the core program. He is reporting on the "New School" of the Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois:

A recent junior section in the New School undertook to attend appropriate movies, lectures, dramatic productions, symphony concerts, and exhibitions. They made visits to historical, scientific and fine arts museums. They worked enthusiastically to provide pictorial material in the form of graphs, exhibits, and blackboard drawings that were often elaborate. They took moving pictures and showed them to illustrate changing ideas and styles. In addition, the class participated as a unit in the intramural program of the school and programmed many parties and trips, including a hay-ride, a bowling party, a family picnic, and an evening at Riverview Park. Parents took active interest and participated in many of the social and curricular activities.

It is not possible here to discuss fully the extent to which the core program at the New School capitalized on the merger of class and extra-class pupil activities. The program however, suggests that the "slice of life" approach to the curriculum, by cutting across usual subject-matter lines, can have the effect of integrating pupil activities of various kinds under the impulse of group planning and higher motivation.⁶

⁶ Tompkins, *op. cit.*, pp. 4-5.

THE CORE PROGRAM AND GUIDANCE

The relation of the Adolescent-Problems Core (Types Five and Six) is so obvious that little discussion is needed. By definition, these programs are based upon the common needs, problems, and interests of students. One-third to two-thirds of the school day is given over to this part of the curriculum.⁷

The core teacher is primarily responsible for so-called guidance and counseling activities, but this function is carried on as an integral phase of instruction. An example of how the core program contributes to guidance is reported by the Ohio State University School:⁸

A further study of boy-girl relations was conducted. . . . These questions were developed by the class and discussing them was most interesting:

1. When a boy asks a girl where she wants to go for an evening and she suggests something out of his price range, what does he think of her and what will he do? When he suggests something which she apparently does not want to do, should he insist on it?
2. What do the boys in our class think of girls swearing, smoking, drinking and necking with anyone?
3. What do boys think of girls who refuse to neck? Why do boys expect a goodnight kiss on the first date and get mad when refused it?
4. How do boys feel about girls showing that they have intelligent opinions?
5. Do boys think small courtesies are important? Do the girls think they are important?
6. How do boys feel about going with girls who are taller than they are?
7. What is interesting conversation? How do you start it and keep it going? Why do some men use sarcasm and insulting remarks?
8. Do we have to change our social standards to get along with others in college?
9. Should sex be discussed between girls and boys? If so, where and when?

⁷ See Chapter VI for description of such programs.

⁸ *A Description of Curricular Experiences, The Upper School Grades Seven to Twelve, Inclusive.* Columbus, Ohio, The Ohio State University School, 1949. (Mimeo).

10. What do boys think when a girl's parents say what they may and may not do?
11. What do boys think of girls who go on blind dates?
12. What do boys and girls think about going steady? At what age?
13. Would boys rather have girls be independent, clinging vines, or in between?
14. What kind of personality do boys like in girls?
15. Why do girls like to have boys cut in a dance partner? Why do boys object to having another boy cut in? "

An interesting example of how guidance becomes an inseparable and indistinguishable part of the ongoing activities of the core class is reported by Margaret Roling.¹⁰

A unit on health and recreation started with the students listing their problems in the use of leisure time:

1. We have nothing to do in leisure hours.
2. It is too hard to find something to do.
3. We don't know how to do what we'd like to do.
4. We don't know how to choose from among several things.
5. We don't know how to plan.
6. We don't know what to do when alone.
7. We lack space
8. We can't fit in with the family.
9. We can't have money and we don't know things to do that don't take money.
10. We have difficulty getting acquainted with people.
11. Race prejudice keeps some people from having a good time.
12. Size is a difficulty.
13. Sometimes we want to get even with somebody and it spoils things.
14. Jealousy spoils things. Thoughtlessness does, too.
15. We don't feel that others take us in.

The problems were then made the basis of a series of teacher-student planned units which the students called, "Increasing Our Interests and Knowledge."

Illustrations of typical core activities which have significant guid-

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 84. Note: These questions were discussed in a Twelfth Grade Group. The University School operates on what the author has designated as a *Type-Five* Core.

¹⁰ Seventh Grade Teacher at Indianola Junior High School, Columbus, Ohio.

ance implications are provided by a resource unit developed in Worcester County, Maryland. The following suggestions are taken at random from various sections of the unit:

Think of some adult with whom you get along very well. List the characteristics of this person. Check those which you believe that you also possess. Then add some of your traits which are not exhibited by this adult. Compare these with the qualities which he or she possesses but you do not find in yourself. How do you explain the fact that these differences do not interfere with your friendly relations?

Prepare a similar list for an adult with whom you do not get along well. You and this person must have some traits in common as well as some in which you differ markedly. How do you explain that in your relationship with this person, your differences are so much more significant than your likenesses?

To what extent are you responsible for your friendly relations with one person and your disagreement with the other?

Recall a recent incident in your association with each of these adults which illustrates your ability or inability to get along. To what extent did your own attitude affect your own behavior and that of the other person?

Use the filmstrip and recording, "Meet Your Mind" by Dr. William Menninger (Lewellen's Production, 8 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago 3, Illinois) in class to help students review visually the information they have learned about behavior.

Construct co-operatively a rating scale which lists 8 or 10 traits, such as, consideration for others, facial expression, poise, etc. List interpretation of each of these from one extreme to the other. Give each interpretation a value. Have everyone rate himself and have everyone rate someone else. Pool the values to see if there are differences. (Avoid making this a popularity contest or a matter dealing with individuals in the class. Keep project on a level of comparing total values within the class.)

A group may present "The Ins and Outs," a dramatic sketch for and about Teenagers. This skit tells the story of a student who is not accepted into the social life of his school and the effects on his behavior. You may obtain the script from the Southern California Society for Mental Hygiene, 600 South Hobart Boulevard, Los Angeles 5, California.

Write a short skit dramatizing introductions. Include in your cast one person who knows nothing of correct social usage. Contrast this person with one who is familiar with the customs governing greetings and introductions.

Divide the class into groups. Let them first practice by themselves in different corners of the room. Then each group should give an introduction

before the class in order to receive constructive suggestions from the teacher and from the other students. To judge the introduction, ask these questions:

Was the introduction scene gracious, friendly, cordial?

Were the people at ease?

Was the scene a happy one, or was it rather solemn?

Was the introduction hurried or awkward?

Were the names spoken distinctly?

Was anyone shy or embarrassed?

Was a suitable conversation clue given?

Write short character sketches of two girls (or two boys). Do not write about people whom others will recognize. Choose girls or boys who are very different from each other. What do you admire in each? What must you overlook?

Plan a dinner and an evening party for the class in the school. Show the movie "Are You Popular?" (Coronet Films, 65 E. South Water Street, Chicago, Illinois). Afterwards have pupils discuss it. In planning the dinner and evening party, arrange for groups to practice conventional projects; such as, setting table, writing letters, etc.

Organize a panel (or several panels) of class members to discuss "Teen-age Problems" at a P.T.A. meeting or to provide a program for other organizations of adults in your community.¹¹

In presenting these illustrations the assumption is, of course, that students planning with teachers, would develop the actual scope and learning activities involved. This would insure that the problems dealt with would be those which the teacher and students, working together, would decide were most helpful to the group as a whole. Obviously, many problems would assume an individual character that would not fit in readily with group discussion. This is the point at which individual counseling comes into the picture. This does not mean, as some guidance experts would have us believe, that the emphasis shifts from "education" to "guidance" as the teacher deals with the individual problems of students.

In the core program, no such distinction can reasonably be made. The processes of group and individual instruction are but aspects of the complete learning situation. In both cases, the teacher is help-

¹¹ Selected from *Getting Along With Others*. A resource unit for Junior High Schools. Snow Hill, Md. Board of Education, Worcester County, 1952. For an analysis of this unit, see Chapter XIV.

ing the student to find his own answers to his problems. In some cases, group instruction is more successful, particularly when the students are acquiring new points of view, which can best be accomplished through the interplay of differing ideas and opinions. For example, the broad issues of the so-called conflict between science and religion are appropriate matters of group instruction. On the other hand, the particular problem which a student might face in individual or family conflict over religious beliefs could best be dealt with on an individual basis. Both kinds of instruction are integral parts of the teacher's job in the modern school, and there seems to be no good reason for calling one aspect "education" and the other aspect "guidance" or personnel work. The ultimate remedy for the situation lies not in the multiplication of personnel with sharply differentiated functions, but rather in the adoption of the broadened conception of the work of the teacher, with a consequent revision of the curriculum. In schools where personnel workers are employed, their principal job ought to be curriculum reconstruction and the in-service training of teachers.

GUIDANCE THROUGH SPECIAL-INTEREST AREAS

The foregoing discussion has attempted to show that the gap between education and guidance is bridged when the common needs, problems, and interests of students are made the center of the program of general education. It must not be assumed however that the core has the exclusive responsibility for all guidance and counseling. The special-interest areas such as mathematics, science, the arts—fine and industrial, and vocations, the social studies, the language arts, and business education all provide the basis for individual and group guidance for students who have special interests in those areas. If the potentialities of these fields of knowledge are seldom realized it is because they are not taught from the standpoint of student problems and needs.

THE ROLE OF THE GUIDANCE SPECIALIST

It must not be assumed that all of the problems which students face can be satisfactorily solved through programs of curriculum

development along the lines set forth in the preceding discussion. There will still be need for personnel that is especially equipped to give certain specialized types of assistance to students. Expert assistance will be needed to carry out the following functions, among others.

1. To co-ordinate the group and individualized instruction which is the principal responsibility of the classroom teacher.
2. To administer programs for promoting a better understanding of the student, through the securing of adequate data.
3. To aid in vocational placement of students both in the part-time work program of the school and in full-time employment at the end of the period of formal education.
4. To deal with difficult cases of physical or psychological maladjustment which require special training and skill of a psychiatric nature.
5. To maintain a follow-up of graduates and drop-outs and to interpret data regarding such a follow-up for the purpose of improving the guidance program, and the total school program.

In addition to carrying out these specialized functions the guidance counselor needs to be well prepared in the curriculum area. In this capacity he may help individual teachers in recognizing the guidance possibilities in their respective fields. He may also aid teachers in the development of resource units, not only in the core program, but also in the special-interest areas. A guidance counselor, with a broad point of view might well serve as the curriculum director of the school.

ORGANIZATION TO PROMOTE GUIDANCE

The schools that have developed core curriculums have centered the so-called guidance function in the core teacher or teachers. This is, of course, a logical development since, as has been shown, the core curriculum is usually organized around the basic common needs of youth. In The Ohio State University School a chairman or counselor is designated at each grade level. This teacher is charged with the chief responsibility for (1) giving and co-ordinating instruction in the core, (2) co-ordinating the activities of the grade group within and without the core period, (3) giving help to individual

students, and (4) co-ordinating records and reports. Many larger schools follow a similar pattern, except that a chairman (or counselor) is designated for each unit-group—usually thirty to forty students. These grade chairmen usually continue with the same group of students for a two-year period. This gives continuity to the program and makes it possible for the chairman to become very well acquainted with the individual students.

The William A. Bass Junior High School of Atlanta, Georgia, has operated successfully for a number of years upon the basis of a "little school" organization. Each of the grades of the school is broken up into three or four little schools of 125 to 150 students, each of which has its faculty, its own class organization, and its own parent-teachers' organization. For each little school faculty, a chairman is designated who carries on most of the functions described above. As many as possible of the faculty remain with the group for a two-year period. Considerable variation in curriculum organization exists among the several "little schools." Continuity is maintained by holding frequent meetings with the principal for the purpose of discussing common problems.

In schools that operate on a subject basis, the most common procedure for organizing the so-called guidance function is the homeroom. The problem of unifying individual and group instruction is more difficult under such a setup unless the homeroom teacher offers instruction in at least two subjects, is allowed ample time for giving individual help to students, and continues with the same group of students over a two-year period. And even if these conditions are met the compartmentalization of subjects interferes with the unification of guidance and instruction.

THE NEW ROLE OF THE CLASSROOM TEACHER

It is apparent from the foregoing discussion that the traditional role of the teacher as a maker of assignments and a hearer of recitations undergoes a marked change as the curriculum reorganization movement gets under way. This calls, first of all, for a new type of teacher preparation. The familiar plan of building up majors and

minors in organized subject-matter fields, without any reference to the use of the subject matter in learning, with separate courses in psychology and methods of teaching, general and special, and a short period of practice teaching, will have to give way to drastic reorganization which prepares teachers for their new responsibility. The tendency among teacher-education institutions is to add some new courses in guidance and field work to the already overcrowded curriculum, but this is, at best, a makeshift. Meanwhile, school administrators will need to develop in-service programs, in the form of workshops or study groups, possibly with the assistance of college personnel, for the purpose of re-educating teachers in terms of their new functions. As such programs become widespread, the teacher-education institutions will reorganize to meet the new demands. In the second place, as teachers assume more and more responsibility for individual as well as group instruction, traditional notions of class size and teaching loads will have to undergo change. To ask the teacher to assume new responsibilities without corresponding readjustment in the number of daily student contacts, and in class size, is a way of insuring the failure of the enterprise.

SUMMARY

1. The development of separate and distinct guidance programs in schools came about as a result of the formalism of the curriculum which has been an obstacle to providing optimally for the meeting of the needs of students.
2. It is not possible to make any logical distinction between the process of teaching and of guiding. Such distinctions are purely arbitrary and are apt to violate the educative process.
3. As the high-school curriculum is reorganized to meet the needs of youth in the modern world, the need for elaborate guidance programs with a separate staff tends to disappear.
4. As the high-school curriculum is reorganized as indicated above, the role of the classroom teacher shifts from the imparting of subject matter to guiding group and individual learning activities.
5. The new responsibilities of the teacher call for a redefinition of teaching load, a new type of teacher preparation, and inservice education.
6. If the teacher is to be of optimal assistance in helping students to solve

their problems, provision needs to be made for the "homeroom" teacher to continue for a two-year period with the same group of students.

7. The adolescent-problems core provides the most satisfactory plan for unifying the group and individualized aspect of learning.
8. The guidance specialist plays a very significant though different role when the curriculum is reorganized to meet the needs of youth.

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CHAPTER XII

CONTROVERSIAL ISSUES IN THE CLASSROOM

When the school begins to deal realistically with the problems that young people face in the process of growing up in our democratic culture, the character of the curriculum changes significantly and problems arise that are unheard of in the traditional school. If the school conceives its function as primarily that of transmitting the culture of the past, imparting facts and information, developing skills in fundamentals, and the like, there is little danger that issues will arise that will cause trouble. The student's actual problems rarely get into the picture at all. He must find solutions for them through other agencies, such as the home, the church, youth organizations, and propaganda groups that are always anxious to supply the "right" answer. On the other hand, if the school curriculum is based upon any sort of analysis of the problems which confront youth as he tries to bring order to his values and standards, the school immediately becomes a forum for the discussion of problems upon which people feel deeply. Dealing with controversial issues is then one of the school's most difficult problems.

WHAT IS A CONTROVERSIAL ISSUE?

One of the best known definitions of a controversial issue is that formulated by the Junior Town Meeting League:

An issue is controversial when some of its proposed solutions conflict with the cherished interests, beliefs, or group affiliations of a section of citizens. Fundamental to most controversial issues is the intellectual or emotional attachment of some citizens to the interest or welfare of organizations or groups.¹

Just what constitutes a "section of citizens" is not clear. Obviously it implies more than one. Conceivably if *one* individual wielded a great deal of power and a proposed solution conflicted with it, his opposition might be sufficient to make an issue controversial. If, for example, one member of a school board objected to the teaching of controversial issues in the school, that would make the issue controversial—until the board finally acted.

The intent of the definition, however, is clear. Perhaps it would be fair to state that any issue is controversial when there are conflicting opinions as to the proper resolution of it. That interpretation seems to have been accepted by the Elizabeth, New Jersey, Board of Education, which adopted a report stating: "A controversial issue, as herein understood, is one in which there exist conflicting opinions among the citizens of the community, of the nation, or among the nations of the world."²

Some Illustrations of Controversial Issues. It would be impossible to formulate *all* of the controversial issues which exist at any one time in a dynamic democratic society. The following list, however, will provide illustrations of some current ones. The categories are arbitrary and overlapping, but they do provide convenient centers for grouping the issues.

Government and Political Science

1. What should be the policy of the government in maintaining and improving the health of its citizens?
2. Should the Taft-Hartley Law be repealed, modified or retained in its present form?

¹ *Teaching Controversial Issues*. p. 5. Copyright, 1948, Junior Town Meeting League, Columbus, Ohio. Other pamphlets of the League are: *Let's Have a Discussion!*, *Make Youth Discussion Conscious!*, *Discussion and Current Affairs*, and *Civic Training*.

² *A Policy for the Handling of Controversial Issues in the Elizabeth Public Schools*. Elizabeth, New Jersey, Board of Education, 1950, p. 3.

3. What should be the relationship between the Federal government and education?
4. What should be the policy of the government concerning inflation?
5. What should be the policy of the Federal government toward housing?
6. To what extent should the government control business?
7. What should be the United States government's policy on farm price support?
8. Should we adopt a permanent plan of universal military training?
9. What should be the policy of the United States government toward old age pensions?

International Relations

1. What should be the main purposes of international law or world government?
2. What kind of constitution is best suited for international organizations?
3. What international controls should be placed upon the use of air power, the atom bomb, and similar weapons?
4. What should be our policy in making and protecting economic treaties with other nations?
5. What should be our policy in protecting our national interests in other countries?
6. To what extent should propaganda be used at the international level?
7. To what extent, if any, should we yield our national sovereignty to the United Nations?
8. What should be our policy in defending the principles of the United Nations?
9. What should be our policy with respect to supplying food and other goods to the rest of the world?

Economics

1. What should be the relationship between government and private enterprise?
2. To what degree is the Federal government responsible for the economic security of the individual?
3. What should be the policy of the federal government in stabilizing the economy?
4. What should be the policy of the federal government regarding international trade?
5. What should be the policy of the federal government in supporting projects which benefit only certain areas or groups of people?

6. By what means should the government derive its income?
7. What should be the policy of industry concerning the economic security of labor?
8. To what degree should government subsidize segments of our economy?
9. What economic system is most compatible with the principles of our democracy?
10. What should be the policy of the government concerning disability and rehabilitation benefits for veterans?

Religion and Ethics

1. Should a person always tell the truth?
2. Should capital punishment be abolished?
3. What must people do in order to secure and maintain religious freedom?
4. Should interracial marriages be tolerated?
5. What are the religious influences in modern society?
6. Should there be released time for the teaching of religion in the public school?
7. What should be the role of the school in dealing with religious and moral values?
8. What are the bases for religious and ethical beliefs?
9. Should our present law concerning conscientious objectors be retained, modified or repealed?
10. Should moral and ethical values be derived from human experience?

Personal Relations

1. What should be the policy toward students who marry before graduation from high school?
2. Should there be restrictions on the style of dress of high-school students?
3. On what bases should school organizations be determined?
4. On what bases should participation in school organizations be determined?
5. On what bases should school groups be permitted to take out-of-town trips?
6. On what bases should a student be evaluated?
7. On what bases should the sports program of the high school be set up?
8. What should be the policy of the high school toward students driving cars to school?
9. Should there be restrictions on initiations in the high school?

10. Should there be some type of student governing body in the high school? ³

A casual examination of this list of controversial issues will convince the reader that upon *all* of them, no matter how trivial some may appear to be, there are bound to be differences of opinion. The entire nation may be deeply stirred by such an issue as, "To what extent should government control business?" On the other hand, perhaps only the students of a particular high school would be concerned with the type of student government, if any, which the school should have. A seemingly trivial issue like, "Should there be restrictions on the style of dress of high-school students?" has been known to divide a community. Thus the particular significance of an issue cannot well be determined by any well-phrased generalization. It depends upon time, place, and circumstance.

WHY SHOULD THE HIGH SCHOOL DEAL WITH CONTROVERSIAL ISSUES?

A democratic society is always in the process of re-creating and redefining its ideals and values. This it does through the application of the method of intelligence to the solution of its problems. And this implies on the part of the citizen a familiarity with the techniques of planning and working cooperatively and a zeal for settling differences through conference and discussion, rather than through resort to violence, or to the acceptance of answers given by a totalitarian government that forbids its citizens the right to think reflectively. This places an unmistakable obligation on the school if it is to become society's principal agency for the re-creation of values.

As succinctly stated by the Junior Town Meeting League, the obligation of the school is this:

. . . to provide specifically and carefully for the realistic induction of young citizens into the methods of arriving at rational decisions on the tough problems which must be determined by popular will or consent. No other agency of society even approaches the school in either capa-

³ Prepared by a Workshop Group in Secondary Education under the direction of the author, 1952.

bility, opportunity, or responsibility for performing this function, which does not exist in a totalitarian social order.

A dynamic school will, by its very nature, bring students face to face with some issues which are yet unresolved. The teachers of such a school will help students to make use of the great reservoir of established values, accepted principles, and proved facts in considering unsolved problems. Students will be led to see that much of our great body of accepted values is based upon the solved problems of the past. They can proceed with the assurance that most controversial issues of today will have commonly accepted answers in the future. They will recognize that the consideration of controversial issues is essential to continuing orderly change.⁴

WHAT CONTROVERSIAL ISSUES SHOULD BE DEALT WITH IN THE CLASSROOM?

One is tempted to insist that any controversial issue that is within the maturity level and of interest to a given class is appropriate for discussion. There are other theoretical and practical considerations, however, which must be taken into account if the program for dealing with controversial issues is to be successful. The following "Criteria for Relating Controversial Issues to the Curriculum" should prove helpful, particularly in the selection of issues:

In selecting those problems and issues which should be included in the curriculum, the following questions may be raised.

1. *Is this issue significant or timely?* Of the various controversial issues which might be selected, some have priority because they are of concern to large numbers of people (international control of atomic energy); are related to basic principles (opposition to the poll tax); or are at the moment under public consideration (the role of government in housing).
2. *Is this issue, or some aspect of it, within the range of the knowledge and competence of the students?* Each issue introduced calls for special terms and concepts which are peculiar to it. In fitting an issue into the curriculum, care must be taken to adapt the subject to the background and maturity of the students. Senior high school students can handle the question of the desirability of strong governmental economic controls to halt inflation. The ability of younger students to do so is problematic.

⁴ Junior Town Meeting League, *op. cit.*, p. 6. Copyright, 1948, by The Junior Town Meeting League.

3. *Is the issue within the limits of the interests and experiences of the students?* It is unlikely that a fifth grade class would have much interest in World Federalism, but the question of whether or not students should read comic books would probably be interesting to them. Issues too far outside the experience of students are likely to result in ineffective classroom situations.
4. *Are materials available from which a reasonable amount of data may be gathered?* The teacher should make certain that students can find enough information about an issue to cover the important aspects. A few references in the *World Almanac* and an encyclopedia would scarcely suffice. It is possible, on the basis of historical and other evidence, to come to some decision on the importance of a strong Britain to the United States. One might have considerable difficulty in establishing or refuting the proposition that men are more artistic than women.
5. *Will the issue require more time for a satisfactory study than the class can afford to give to it?* The teacher and students will have to decide how much time would be required for dealing adequately with the problem raised. If a week were needed, it would be unwise to attempt to deal with the issue in less time. A hasty, uninformed discussion is likely to lead to confusion. The wise teacher will see that the element of time is considered in planning whether to take up a given issue.
6. *Will the consideration of the problem contribute to a meeting of minds?* Can the emotional content of the issue be so handled that the teacher can emphasize the spirit of working as a group toward individual solutions? A successful outcome in dealing with controversial issues requires that each student be made to feel that he has made a contribution. And though students may come out of the study with varying points of view, students should have gained understanding of why others might hold differing views.
7. *Will a consideration of the problem contribute to the realization of broad curriculum objectives?* Some of these objectives may be respect for other peoples, an appreciation of how and why people differ, and an understanding of what we mean when we say that "everybody counts in a democracy."
8. *Do the issues grow out of the broad framework of the curriculum?* The curricula of most schools provide plenty of opportunity for the consideration of controversial issues. The study of the issue can make use of what has gone before and add to what comes later in the course.
9. *Will the consideration of the issue help students to recognize that every question has more than one side and that on each side are many*

points of view? A recognition of this fact is an important part of a student's education.

10. *Will the consideration of the issue by the group be acceptable to the community as appropriate for school study?* Whether or not a particular issue should be included in the curriculum depends upon the background and experience of the community. This is not to imply that the school has the right to pass over certain controversial issues because they happen to be "hot." But it does mean that the school must make certain that the handling of those issues *seems* right to the community. Just *being* right is not enough.

The teacher should give different emphasis to these various criteria. On some occasions, for example, the timeliness and significance of a particular issue, as suggested in the first criterion, may dictate its choice in spite of its lack of relationship to the curriculum as suggested in criterion 8.⁵

SOME BLOCKS TO DEALING WITH CONTROVERSIAL ISSUES

There is general agreement that the high school should deal with controversial issues. Most people accept, in principle, the idea that the expression of differences of opinion on important issues is a part of our American tradition of free speech. Likewise, they accept the "American way" of settling differences—conference, discussion, decision by vote, if necessary. Every four years we get a concrete demonstration of this American way. And no matter who wins the election—the results are accepted—until the time comes to reopen the issues. The American people believe in our way of settling differences—and this belief is a powerful ally on the side of the schools that believe that young people cannot be decently educated unless they have full and free opportunity to deal with every problem that vitally affects them.

But this faith of the people in freedom of thought and discussion must not blind educators to the fact that there are in America powerful forces that wish to gain their own ends and that look longingly—and expectantly—at the schools as their own instrument. Sometimes their purposes may be served by "walling off" the schools from the

⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 8-9.

vital issues of the day. But more frequently they feel the need of the schools as active allies and seek to marshal the powerful influence of youth in their behalf.

But even these powerful—and often selfish interests—do not deny the right of the school *per se* to deal with issues fairly. They stake their case on grounds that are more difficult to deal with. They charge that the schools are indoctrinating students into a way of life which they oppose; and in making these charges they utilize all of the devices of the propagandist,—name calling, glittering generalities, card-stacking, band wagon appeals, investigation threats, and the like.⁶ Often the result is to frighten teachers to the extent that they retreat to their “ivory towers” and teach abstract mathematics, astronomy, and Latin.

Certain types of issues are, of course, potentially more dangerous than others. Perhaps foremost is the group of issues dealing with international relations. Every nation through its treatment of history in the schools tends to develop unquestioned allegiance to the ideals of that nation, sometimes not by deliberate distortion but by what is omitted. America is no exception. So-called patriotic organizations serve as guardians of our sovereignty and see to it that textbooks used in the schools are free from the taint of internationalism. Of course, all people want peace and international cooperation, but not at the expense of giving up any part of our sovereignty. There is no *logical* reason why the attitude should prevent schools from discussing these matters, but often the *fact of discussion* is taken as synonymous with the *acceptance* on the part of the school of a position which is contrary to that of the organization. Because of the difficulty of getting fair publicity, the school which is attacked retreats and from that time shuns the discussion of these issues.

There are powerful economic groups that are also vitally concerned as to what the schools teach about the free enterprise system. These groups include chambers of commerce, manufacturers' associations, taxpayers' leagues. These groups frequently join with the

⁶ For an excellent discussion of the propaganda agencies and their devices, see J. Minor Gwynn, *Curriculum Principles and Social Trends* (revised edition). New York, The Macmillan Company, 1950, Chapter XVIII.

patriotic organizations in charging a teacher or school with subversion if the issue of free enterprise is ever raised. The general situation was well stated by Beale several years ago, and is equally true today. He said:

Most dangerous of all are social and economic questions. A number of subjects are dangerous however "discreetly" handled: labor problems even in the abstract, the tariff and free trade, government regulation of industry, public ownership of utilities, business ethics, advertising methods, banking practices, minimum wage laws, child labor, old-age pensions and unemployment insurance. These subjects are risky even in the abstract. It would be impossible to reduce them to the concrete and discuss labor conditions in local factories where perhaps many of our pupils' fathers work, tax evasion of local businesses, bally-hoo methods of local realtors, or rates charged by local utilities.⁷

There are protests involving the teaching of biological evolution that indicate that strong public sentiment opposes dealing with this question. The anti-evolution laws of a number of states are sufficient testimony of the unwillingness of certain groups to permit schools to have a free hand in dealing with this important problem. Rarely do textbook writers deal comprehensively with the evidence supporting the theory of evolution. This is not because such evidence is not available, but rather because of the fear of public reaction. Even more rarely do teachers deal with the relationship between biological evolution and religious beliefs. Indeed, it is not unusual for students to complete the high-school program without ever having participated in any discussion dealing with this problem. In much the same category are classed problems involving sex relations, venereal diseases, and the like, even though such problems are crucial to the adolescent.

⁷ H. B. Albery and B. H. Bode, eds., *Educational Freedom and Democracy*, p. 84. (From a chapter written by Howard Beale.) Copyright, 1938, by D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., New York. For further study of the controversy see Harold Rugg, *That Men May Understand*, New York. Doubleday, Doran and Company, 1941; Alonzo F. Myers, "The Attacks on The Rugg Books," *Frontiers of Democracy*, VII, 17-22 (Oct. 15, 1940); Mervin K. Hart, "Let's Discuss This on the Merits," *Frontiers of Democracy*, VII, 82-87 (Dec. 1940); "Propaganda Over the Schools," *Propaganda Analysis*, IV, 1-12 (Feb. 25, 1941); Ernest O. Melby, *American Education Under Fire*. New York, Anti-Defamation League, 1951.

Problems involving racial and minority groups are frequently not discussed realistically in the high school because of the attitude of the community. Yet one of the principal tenets of democracy is respect for human personality. In the long run, education is the only successful method of dealing with intolerance, and if education fails in the task, how shall democracy fare in the future? ⁸

Do these obstacles mean that the high school cannot deal effectively with controversial issues? If we answer this question in the affirmative, it means that the school is merely the instrument for perpetuating the *status quo*. If our democratic society is to be refined and re-created, we would then need to turn to other agencies for providing the direction for social changes. If we answer in the negative, then we are obliged to develop a satisfactory plan for dealing with the pressing problems that beset youth in the modern world.

In considering such a plan, attention will be given to two aspects: the general setting of democratic discussion and the techniques which should be employed. The discussion will be developed by the use of generalizations which are intended to serve as tentative guides which teachers may find helpful.

THE GENERAL SETTING OF DEMOCRATIC DISCUSSION

In many cases, the difficulties which schools encounter in dealing with controversial issues grow out of various misconceptions of the role of the school by the teachers themselves and the public, and the failure of the administration to encourage and support free discussion. While conditions vary in different communities, certain generalizations would seem to apply to all or nearly all. These will be stated and discussed briefly.

1. *Freedom of the student to learn, rather than participation in*

⁸ For analyses of "shunned or neglected areas" in the high-school program see: Harold Rugg, *Foundations for American Education*. New York, The World Book Co., 1947, p. 674 ff. See also a series of articles under the general heading of Areas of Neglect in the Secondary School Curriculum, in *Progressive Education*, XXVIII, 37-56, (November, 1950)

controversial social-action programs in the community, should be the primary concern of the school. Learning in its best sense, involves the "continuous reconstruction of experience." Learning products are identified as changes in attitudes upon the basis of new or deeper understandings, and the acquisition of general and special abilities, habits, and skills. The learning experiences which the school provides for students are directed toward changes in behavior in line with democratic ideals and values. The school provides work experience for the student, not primarily to get the work done, but because such experience enhances growth in line with democratic values. The school provides a studio for painting pictures, not primarily for the purpose of turning out marketable pictures, but because it sees in painting, opportunities for learning—that is, for growth. If the school sets up a cooperative store, it is not primarily for service to the community but because in such an enterprise there are significant opportunities for bringing about desirable changes in behavior. In other words, direct experience serves the same general purpose as organized subject matter, in that it promotes *learning* as we have defined it above.

In contrast with this basic purpose of the school, the factory seeks primarily to turn out useful goods at a price that the public can afford to pay. Experience tends to show that this aim can be more effectively realized if workers are satisfied and happy, if conditions for continuous growth are maintained. But this, in our present form of economic organization, is a subsidiary rather a primary objective. Governmental agencies are established to perform certain functions, to accomplish certain things, the police to maintain order, the fire department to put out fires, the welfare department to provide appropriate living conditions. Only indirectly are these agencies concerned with *learning* as such.

The contrast between the primary function of the school and those of industrial and community organizations has been drawn perhaps too sharply. Perhaps if society were to become completely democratic, many of these distinctions would become blurred, but even then there would undoubtedly be a need for setting up a special agency for the primary purpose of facilitating and promot-

ing desirable learning. At any rate, a guiding principle seems to be implicit; namely, that *the test of effective participation by' the school in the life of the community is the extent to which such participation promotes the continuous reconstruction of experience.* This would rule out purely routine participation, by means of which nothing new is learned. It would also rule out any participation that closes the door on further learning. And this has an important bearing upon one problem of dealing with controversial issues. For when the school takes sides on issues and proceeds to social action, the conditions for further reconstruction of experience are difficult if not impossible to maintain.

For the school to study the different forms of government for the community through interviews, visits to governmental agencies, and perhaps to cities having a given type of governmental organization, by the examination of leading authorities, is without doubt an excellent learning activity. For the school or group to seek by direct action to promote a change in the community's governmental structure is to misinterpret its function, for at this stage *learning* ceases to become the primary objective. For the school to study the underlying causes of a local strike by every possible means is just good sense, for such study is necessary if students are to become intelligent. For the school to promote the cause of the strikers by sending students to the picket lines to prevent workers from entering the plant, or to take sides against the workers by distributing propaganda leaflets in the community, is to turn the school into an agency for promoting propaganda. All this is not to say, of course that individual students, *as citizens*, should not be encouraged to take any action that seems appropriate to them, but this is quite apart from the school as an organized educational agency. It may be argued by some that the role of the school as set forth in this discussion is insignificant and passive. On the contrary, such an interpretation makes it possible for the school to become a dynamic force in social reconstruction, even though it does so *indirectly* through the release of intelligence. Furthermore, apart from the principle set forth above, the public is not likely to be attentive to the insistence of a school that it deals with controversial issues fairly

and without bias if the school has been engaged in social action which clearly reveals its bias.

2. *The school should be devoted to the method of intelligence in dealing with problems of human concern.* This generalization flows naturally from the preceding discussion, for "thinking is the method of intelligent learning." To employ the techniques of problem solving: (1) defining the problem, (2) setting up hypotheses, (3) discovering, analyzing, and applying pertinent data to the hypotheses, and (4) arriving at tentative conclusions and plans of action upon the basis of the evidence, is essential in every aspect of the school program. In dealing with controversial issues, it provides the guiding principle for the teacher and students to follow. The teacher should not expect to draw a salary from the public treasury while propagandizing for his favorite beliefs. He must scrupulously provide the means for getting at the truth of a given issue, and this involves careful selection of reading materials which present differing judgments and opinions, providing for interviews with individuals representing differing viewpoints, selecting audio-visual aids that provide balance, and, in general, maintaining such conditions as will keep open the free play of intelligence. This does not mean that he may not take sides or present his own point of view, for he is obligated to do this. It does mean, however, that he should not "load the dice" in such a way that the students are led to regard the teacher's opinions as having more weight than any other authority. Intelligence cannot operate in an atmosphere charged with coercion—physical or intellectual. Furthermore, the school can win the confidence of the public only to the extent that it succeeds in convincing the public that teachers and students, when they deal with controversial issues, do so as a serious and unbiased quest to discover the truth concerning such issues. As Griffin points out: "*Unless the public believes that teachers are actually conducting open inquiry, rather than peddling their own preferences, either the curriculum or the teachers' freedom as citizens is almost sure to be adversely affected.*"⁹

⁹ Alan Griffin, "The Teacher as a Citizen," *Educational Leadership*, X, 8 (October, 1952). Italics in original.

Devotion to the method of intelligence does not mean that the teacher must not use propaganda or "slanted material."¹⁰ Outside the classroom, the student is bombarded with propaganda in the press, on the radio and television. A part of his education is to learn to evaluate such propaganda in terms of recognized principles for supporting and safeguarding conclusions. When propaganda materials are kept out of the classrooms or libraries, a great disservice is rendered to students, for they are prevented from becoming intelligent in the detection of propaganda. Schools have been criticized because some citizen or organization discovered a book or article favorable to communism or socialism, or because a textbook appears to support some brand of collectivism. The test ought to be: Are such materials utilized to make the student more intelligent about the issue? If they are, the presence of such material in the curriculum is justified. To insist upon "screening out" such materials is really "throwing the baby out with the bath." This point is well made by Wronski in concluding the article referred to above:

Among those who would eschew slanted materials one frequently hears that they are too dangerous for the students. However, all thinking in a democracy is potentially dangerous. The free mind constitutes one of the inherent dangers, as well as benefits, of a truly democratic nation. It allows a person to select from alternative courses of action. To the extent that we limit his intellectual horizon only to "safe" publications he has less, not more freedom.

The issue is no less than one with which John Stuart Mill deals in his essay *On Liberty*. Strange it is, Mill wrote, "that men should admit the validity of the arguments for free discussion, but object to their being 'pushed to an extreme,' not seeing that unless the reasons are good for an extreme case, they are not good for any case." Relating this to contemporary American education one may argue that anything that tends to restrict the right of the student to free inquiry—and to the exercise of the critical thinking capacity that accompanies such inquiry—is to their detriment as citizens in a democracy and ultimately is to the detriment of democracy as a whole.¹¹

¹⁰ See Stanley P. Wronski, "Use of 'Slanted' Material in the Classroom," *Educational Leadership*, X, 26-30 (October, 1952). Copyright, 1952, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 30

3. *The school should appeal to the public to help safeguard its right and obligation to deal with controversial issues.* In a final analysis, the public will decide what the school is to teach. It will elect boards of education pledged to carry out its wishes. These boards, in turn, will appoint school officials congenial to their purposes. Therefore, any policy for dealing with controversial issues will ultimately be sanctioned or rejected by the people of the community.

But the fact that controversial issues exist at all implies that the public is divided, not necessarily into two opposing factions, but rather into many groups representing many shades of opinion. For example, in most communities can be found many differing religious beliefs, ranging from extreme fundamentalism to atheism. Likewise, attitudes on capital and labor range from belief in the complete domination by the employer to just as complete domination by the labor unions. It would not be difficult to find in any community extreme isolationists, ardent internationalists, and many other people whose views would fall somewhere between the two extremes. Furthermore, the tradition of freedom of thinking and of speech is deep-seated in the American people. The desirability of settling differences through conference and discussion is well established. Consequently the social climate is potentially congenial to freedom of discussion. Through appropriate leadership this potentiality can be converted into actuality. The success and popularity of public forums and "town meetings" is evidence that this is true.

It is to this tradition of democratic discussion that the high school must appeal for the right to deal with controversial issues, limited, of course, by the interest and maturity of the students. But the school must come to the public with this appeal with clean hands. The school must be able to demonstrate its competency to deal *fairly* with issues. The success of such an appeal involves, perhaps more than any other factor, confidence in the teaching staff.

Given assurance by precept and example that the school will use every means at its disposal of applying the method of intelligence to social issues, will the public permit such discussion? This is an open question, and we must admit the presence in every community

of powerful pressure groups that seek to indoctrinate the public with their points of view and are not interested in having all sides of issues presented. In some communities, these forces may prevent such discussion, and we have abundant illustrations of situations where this has occurred. Nevertheless, the school is obligated to continue to try to create a climate of opinion congenial to the idea, and to deny the possibility of achieving it is to deny the ultimate triumph of democracy.

One agency which the school cannot afford to overlook in this appeal is the community council, which ideally represents a cross-section of public opinion. Here the representatives of public education may work shoulder to shoulder with representatives of other institutions and agencies in planning for the improvement of community living. Ways in which students and teachers may participate *educatively* in formulating plans and carrying them into effect are many and varied.

The establishment of citizen committees ¹² for the purpose of providing for responsible participation of laymen, and for creating a climate of opinion favorable to dealing with controversial issues is also a step in the right direction.

Another highly effective way of getting the community behind the teaching of controversial issues in the schools is the cooperative establishment of a school policy on the subject. An excellent illustration is a recent bulletin issued by the Board of Education of Elizabeth, New Jersey.¹³ Since this bulletin may serve as a model for other school systems facing this problem, the content will be described in some detail. It opens with a statement of how the idea originated and states the purposes and manner in which the committee worked:

. . . This policy is intended to clarify for all concerned the determination of the Elizabeth Board of Education to preserve, protect, and increase

¹² See J. H. Hull, *Lay Advisory Committees to Boards of Education in the United States*. Pasadena, Calif., California Association of School Administrators, 1949; *Citizens and Their Schools*. National Citizens Commission, 2 W. 45th St., New York 19, N. Y.

¹³ *A Policy for Handling Controversial Issues in the Elizabeth, New Jersey, Public Schools*, Elizabeth, New Jersey, Board of Education, 1950.

appreciation for the fundamental rights and responsibilities of good American citizenship through education.

The need for a policy on controversial issues was identified by a group known as the Curriculum Advisory Council of the Elizabeth Public Schools. The membership of the Council is 25 persons including two Board of Education members, three representative lay citizens, and 20 members of the professional staff, including classroom teachers and the Superintendent of Schools. Foreseeing the importance of such a policy in these troublous times, the Council established a sub-committee which carried through the necessary research and developed a first draft. The Council then submitted the policy through the Superintendent to the Board of Education for consideration. After extended consideration and with some modification, the Board of Education adopted the Controversial Issues Policy as it appears in this pamphlet. Since its adoption, comprehensive effort has been made to develop public understanding of the policy through the Parent-Teacher Associations and other community organizations. As a result, the teachers and other citizens of Elizabeth are quite aware of the determination of this community to preserve and extend fundamental American rights and responsibilities.¹⁴

Criteria for determining the appropriateness of controversial issues, the responsibility of teachers and the administration are clearly set forth as follows:

Criteria

1. The issue must not involve the indoctrination of religious beliefs, a practice prohibited by state law.
2. The treatment of the issue in question should be within the range of the knowledge, maturity, and competence of the students.
3. There should be study materials and other learning aids available from which a reasonable amount of data pertaining to all aspects of the issue may be obtained.
4. The inclusion of the issue should require only as much time as is needed for a satisfactory study by the class, but sufficient time should be provided to cover the issue adequately.
5. The issue should be current, significant, real, and important to student and teacher. Significant issues are those which in general, concern considerable numbers of people; are related to basic principles; or, at the moment, are under consideration by the public, press, and radio.
6. The proper avenues by which arguments on controversial questions reach students in school are through qualified teachers, the students

¹⁴ *Ibid*, p. 1.

themselves, and the other curriculum channels, approved by the Board of Education.

Responsibility of the Teacher

1. A teacher in a free society has the obligation to uphold, protect, and defend the fundamental freedoms as documented in the history of our American democracy.
2. The teacher is responsible for creating in the classroom an atmosphere of freedom for students to raise questions dealing with critical issues of the time and for maintaining an atmosphere conducive to the free, spirited, and friendly interplay of ideas.
3. If the teacher does not feel qualified for an exploration of a controversial issue, he should guide the pupils to the proper sources and qualified persons who can help them in arriving at their own opinions, based upon facts.
4. It shall be the duty of teachers to see that all facts, evidence, and aspects of an issue are presented honestly.
5. The teacher should acquaint pupils with books, newspapers, and other materials which present data on all aspects of a controversial issue under discussion.
6. Statements presented and opinions expressed during discussion on controversial issues are to be carefully scrutinized by the teacher to make sure they are based on substantiated facts or credible evidence. The teacher should exercise special care to avoid misunderstanding.
7. The importance of the authenticity of facts and the purpose for which they were gathered must be stressed. Propaganda, in any form, should be clearly identified as such by teachers and students and its intent should be clearly understood.
8. Although it is the teacher's responsibility to bring out the facts concerning a controversial question, he has the right to express his opinion, providing his students understand that it is his own opinion and is not to be accepted by them as the authoritative answer.

Responsibility of Administration

1. The following assumptions are basic to the administration of a policy which provides for the inclusion of controversial issues in the schools' curriculum:
 - a. That the teacher is competent to handle controversial issues in the classroom within the fields of his preparation and training only.
 - b. That the principal, as the administrator of his building, bears a major responsibility for the administration and supervision of the curriculum, selection of materials, and methods of instruction, and,

therefore, is alert to and continuously aware in general of what is being taught in his school.

- c. That citizens have the right to suppose that controversial issues are being presented fairly, and to protest to the Board of Education if convinced that unfair, biased, or prejudiced presentations are being made.
2. A teacher who is in doubt concerning the advisability of discussing certain issues in the classroom should confer with his principal as to the appropriateness of the issue. If the principal and the teacher are unable to establish agreement, the issue shall be referred to the Division of Instruction. The Division shall refer the matter to the Superintendent of Schools if necessary.
3. No individual or group may claim the right to present arguments directly to students in schools. Such a "right" would make the schools battlegrounds for all kinds of controversies. The teacher, with approval of principal and/or Superintendent of Schools, should feel free to invite representatives of various viewpoints to discuss issues with classes in order to inform students on all aspects of controversial questions.
4. The Board of Education shall provide a hearing in accordance with American principles of justice, whenever, in the judgment of the Board, materials of instruction or the work of an individual teacher are seriously attacked by individuals or organized groups in such manner as to interfere with the normal administration of this policy.

Selection of Materials

1. At the direction of the Superintendent of Schools the Division of Instruction shall establish and maintain proper procedures for review and approval of educational materials, including textbooks, visual aids, library books, and other supplementary aids to teaching.
2. Whenever publications or materials which are suspected of not clearly, fully, and truly presenting the truth are received by teachers, administrators, principals, or librarians, such materials shall be submitted to the Curriculum Advisory Council for review and consideration. The Council will make recommendations to the Superintendent of Schools concerning what shall be done with these materials. In serious cases of this nature, the Superintendent of Schools shall present the materials in question, and the recommendations of the Council to the Committee on Educational Management of the Board of Education for decision.¹⁵

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 3-5.

It is noteworthy that this policy was democratically developed by administrators, teachers, and laymen. Such action makes it possible for the school to maintain a united front in support of teachers who unjustly incur the displeasure of special-interest or pressure groups. The administrator then becomes the official representative of the teaching group, and in any action he has the backing of the teachers and the board of education. The burden of defense is a shared activity.

But even if the school is not administered democratically, the administrator still owes the teachers the obligation to protect them in the exercise of their legitimate functions. If he fails to do so, all the high-sounding platitudes about academic freedom will be of little avail. There can be no academic freedom for teachers if administration does not stand resolutely back of the teachers. On the other hand, the administrator is also charged with the responsibility of protecting the public against propaganda by the teachers. In this task, too, he should have the support of the teaching group.

SOME TECHNIQUES OF DEMOCRATIC DISCUSSIONS

The success of any plan for dealing with controversial issues will obviously depend upon the techniques which teachers use in promoting democratic discussion. The following generalizations are suggested as guide lines which the teacher may find helpful.

1. *The issues should grow out of the evolving learning situation.* Thinking begins where there is a "forked road" situation in which the learner must stop and take his bearings before proceeding on his way. Likewise, issues do not ordinarily come ready-made to be handed out by the teacher for discussion. More frequently they arise in the process of planning or exploration. Thus in a discussion of Steinbeck's *Grapes of Wrath* reported by Salt,¹⁶ the students hit upon the conflict between capital and labor over the right of the

¹⁶ George Salt, *Thinking Together: Promoting Democracy Through Class Discussion*. Pamphlet No. 6. Chicago, National Council of English Teachers, 1943, pp. 14-18.

employer to hire and fire his employees. This turn of affairs, certainly not planned in advance by the teacher, provided a normal setting for discussion of a problem which directly affected the students. The discussion of the book became of secondary concern, though the teacher saw to it that the book was not forgotten.

This does not mean, of course, that the teacher is not free to raise issues if the pupils fail to do so. As a matter of fact, he is obligated to help the students to see all of the significant implications of the learning situation. Thus in a discussion of the theory of evolution as applied to human beings, the issues involving science and religion might appropriately be raised by the teacher at the proper stage of development. So long as the students accept the issue as being important for them to explore, it does not matter who raises it.

2. The discussion should be so planned and organized as to bring out as many differing points of view as possible. One of the weaknesses of the debates that are so frequently the major discussion activity of the high school is the fact that only *two* sides are presented. This is what is called "the two-valued orientation." Undoubtedly, these debates frequently result in warped points of view because of the form in which the propositions are cast and the established technique of dealing with them.

For most people political questions have only two sides. As a matter of fact, under a two-party system, the voter is reduced to expressing his preference for one of two candidates, and if he isn't very careful he will be led to believe that one represents the *good*, and the other the *bad*, with no middle ground. Our present-day judicial system of dealing with criminal offenses, in which the accused is found "guilty" or "not guilty" encourages the "either-or" type of thinking, even though indeterminate sentences and degrees of guilt are now an indispensable part of our system of administering justice.

The "multiple-valued" orientation clearly promises more for arriving at sound decisions, and teachers and discussion leaders should use every possible means of encouraging the exploration of *all* fruitful hypotheses. This important point suggests that the con-

ventional debate should give way to group discussions involving the entire class, forums, round tables, and panels.

The group that stated the controversial issues listed in this chapter (pp. 341-44) was sensitive to the "multiple-value" concept. For example, the statement of the issue with respect to the Taft-Hartley law is: "Should the Taft-Hartley law be repealed, modified, or retained in its present form?" suggests at least three hypotheses, and "modified" suggests almost an infinite number of different proposals. If the discussion of this issue was stated thus: "Should the Taft-Hartley law be repealed?" the participants would be likely immediately to take sides—*before* examining the various alternatives

3. *Good discussion requires that problems, words, and terms be clearly defined.* Obviously, if there is no agreement upon the meaning of such words as democracy, communism, and fascism, there can be no worthwhile discussion of conflicting political ideologies. These words are all high-level abstractions for which it is difficult to find referents. Until fairly recently, high-school students received little training in defining terms except in the areas of mathematics and science, and in these fields there was very little carry-over to other fields of knowledge. The present-day emphasis upon general language, the nature of proof, and semantics has pointed the way to new possibilities of increasing the effectiveness of instruction.

The difficulty of conducting successful discussions of race questions is a good illustration of the necessity for defining terms. In this area, many words such as Negro, Jew, Jap, or Russian have emotional connotations which interfere with clear discussion. The individual has acquired in unaccountable ways abstract meanings of such words without having examined them in terms of reality. A discussion that proceeds from such a basis gets nowhere because the terms used are quite divorced from the everyday world of fact. It is the business of the leader, usually the teacher, through appropriate questioning to get students to define and illustrate the terms they use. Salt reports an interesting discussion which grew out of a statement by one of the boys in the class that he hated Jews. In the discussion that followed, it developed that "No one had really hated

any individual who might be called by the name of Jew, Negro, or Italian.”¹⁷ Through careful questioning, the students were led to see that their hatreds were directed toward abstractions rather than toward individuals.

4. *Good discussion requires that pertinent data bearing upon the issues be available and utilized in arriving at decisions.* Perhaps the one thing that brings discussion into disrepute with teachers and students is the continued expression of opinion without supporting data. Such discussions usually resolve into name-calling and accomplish nothing. If the discussants, for example, are not in possession of the known facts about “race superiority,” they are hardly in a position to make judgments about the comparative native intelligence of Negroes and whites. If the discussants have not read widely the literature dealing with public ownership or control of utilities, they are hardly in a position to reach worthwhile decisions. Here the discussion leader is obligated to keep pressing for the use of significant data, the weighing of authorities, and the suspension of judgment until as much as possible of the evidence is in. Hasty judgments in class discussions tend to perpetuate that failing which is so characteristic in life outside the school. All too frequently the teacher unconsciously contributes to hasty conclusions, because he fears that he is not “covering ground.” The teacher will have to decide to sacrifice certain traditional values if he expects to help his students to do clear thinking upon pertinent problems.

5. *The discussion leader should try to secure the widest possible student contributions to the discussion.* Very commonly group discussions fail because the contributions of all members of the group are not elicited. Stenographic reports of discussions frequently reveal a tendency on the part of the teacher and a very few students to do all or nearly all of the discussing. This is especially true when the discussion is “forced” by the teacher and is of no particular concern to the majority of the students. The teacher comes before the class and says, “Today let’s have a discussion of the causes of the Civil War.” What he really wants is to find out whether or not the students have read the textbook. The loquacious students respond

¹⁷ Salt, *ibid.*, p. 23.

readily, and for emphasis the teacher repeats their answers, improving on them if possible. Very soon the topic is exhausted, and only a few students have participated at all. The difficulty, of course, is that the students are not facing a problem that is vital to them, and they therefore feel no particular urge to participate except that participation may improve their monthly grades. The situation is quite different when the discussion has been planned cooperatively in advance, and when students feel that they have a unique contribution to make to the solution of the problem. In this case, the responsibility of the teacher shifts from having the students "recite," to leading the discussion in such a way that all have an opportunity to contribute and conclusions are reached, however tentative they may be.

Another thing that interferes with wide participation is the lack of a climate of permissiveness. Students are afraid to express themselves, lest they subject themselves to the ridicule of the teacher or the other students. The utilization by the teacher of the principles of sound group process is very necessary. Individuals must be respected, and differences in personality, opinions, and interests must be utilized to enhance the quality of the discussion.

6. Good discussion requires that decisions of individuals and groups be respected. Democracy cherishes respect for human personality and this means, among other things, that the teacher is bound to respect the decisions which students reach through discussion. The spirit of free inquiry assumes that the solution of problems is to be determined by the use of the method of intelligence. There can be no preconceived solution. The teacher may well be disappointed in the outcome, if it doesn't agree with his own thinking, but he violates the method which he professes to cherish if he tries to impose his own conclusions on the group. If he does this, he is merely inviting his students to *play* with the forms of democracy, and students are quick to discover that they are expected to do nothing more than that. The teacher should be disappointed if he does not succeed in getting his students to solve their problems by the use of the method of intelligence. Certainly he is justified in protecting the conditions for reaching intelligent conclusions, and

he may again and again insist upon an examination of all available data, but beyond that he cannot go, if he is to continue to have the respect of his students. And this holds for the decisions of individuals and minority groups as well as for those of the majority. Where the decision involves group action of some sort, of course the minority must conform to the majority decision, for that too is a part of democratic living. For example, if after careful and extended study the majority of the senior class decides that Quebec meets more of the criteria of a good trip than does New Orleans, the best interests of the class would undoubtedly be served if *all* students conformed to the group judgment. If, on the other hand, the class were trying to arrive at a conclusion concerning a local capital-labor dispute, all shades of judgment should be cherished and respected.

SUMMARY

The teaching of controversial issues is inseparably related to the ideals and values of democratic living. Therefore, if the school accepts as its supreme obligation the progressive enrichment of living, it must insist on its right to deal fairly with every significant controversial issue that is of interest to students, and at their maturity level. Along with this right must be placed the obligation to refrain from propagandistic activities, which are certain to undermine the confidence of the community in the integrity of the school.

Close cooperation with community groups is essential to good understanding, but the school should not forget that its primary obligation is to promote desirable changes in the behavior of the students rather than to serve the community directly.

The right of the school to deal with controversial issues can be safeguarded if teachers practice satisfactory techniques of discussion, and if their relationships with the community indicate their competence to deal with important issues with which the community is concerned.

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CHAPTER XIII

GENERAL METHOD IN THE CLASSROOM- ILLUSTRATIVE LEARNING UNITS

In previous chapters of Part III, the author has attempted to set forth the nature of general method and how it might be applied to the learning process in the classroom. It was pointed out that such application would result in certain gains, such as (1) the elimination of the daily-ground-to-be-covered conception of education, (2) the promotion of dynamic, functional learning, (3) the provision for direct, first-hand experience, (4) the normal day-to-day functioning of democracy in the classroom, (5) the incorporation of guidance into the living structure of the curriculum, and (6) the teaching of controversial issues on a sound basis.

This chapter provides practical classroom illustrations of these more or less theoretical principles. These illustrations are first-hand accounts of *what actually happens* in classrooms when teachers are freed from the bonds of traditional methodology. The schools concerned are striking illustrations of the values derived from democratic curriculum-development programs. To be sure, the teachers who report these units are outstanding—but more important even than their personal qualifications is the fact that they are members of school communities that stimulate the progressive application of the best that is known. The accounts are presented in the words of the teachers who carried out these units in the classroom.

After the presentation of these illustrations some major generalizations will be drawn from them.

WHAT MAKES US TICK¹

SETTING

The Ellicott City High School, Ellicott City, Howard County, Maryland, was the scene for the teaching of the unit *What Makes Us Tick*. This junior-senior high school had at the time this unit was taught a student body of about 360 students and a faculty of 19. Housed here were grades seven through twelve.

Located in a rural area about three miles from the nearest small town, Ellicott City, the school presented a wholesome physical atmosphere for the boys and girls. Built in 1938, and kept in excellent condition thereafter, it was attractive and clean, modestly furnished and equipped, and fast becoming inadequate for a growing student body.

Classrooms number 15 in total, with a combination gym-auditorium, and a cafeteria. To conserve space, some faculty members "floated" from room to room. There was no "teachers' room," no art room, no first-aid room, no secretary's office, no music room. The library and cafeteria were used for classes; the secretary's office was a vestibule near the hall, the physical education office was also first-aid room, art-supply room, and driver-education headquarters.

The curriculum of the school offered programs leading to academic, commercial, and general diplomas. The core program had been accepted only in the junior high school, grades 7, 8, 9, and there not conclusively.

"What Makes Us Tick" was experienced by the ninth grade in their core work which consisted of an average of 104 minutes a day, the period immediately following lunch and the last period in the afternoon. The class met in a room used also by two other teachers and four other classes during the regular day. Desks were stationary.

¹ Prepared by Emma Jean Gerwig, Core Teacher, Ellicott City High School, Howard County, Maryland.

The ninth grade schedule for the week ran as follows:

- 1st period: Home Economics (girls); General Shop (boys)
- 2nd period: General Mathematics
- 3rd period: Girls' and Boys' Physical Education on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday; Music on Tuesday and Thursday
- 4th period: General Science

Lunch

- 5th period: Core
- 6th period: Core

The class numbered 40 and was one of two ninth-grade sections, each composed of a heterogeneous group. The entire ninth grade program as listed above was required.

Twice a week the 9B section participated in a school-club period incorporated into the regular school-day schedule but offered as a separate activity. Membership in a club was optional.

HOW THE UNIT ORIGINATED

The unit originated with a teacher workshop group that planned together a tentative junior-high core curriculum guide at the end of the school year. As a result of their critical investigation into other core curricula functioning in other parts of the State and in other states, and their own thinking, these junior-high teachers produced a curriculum outline with teaching suggestions to be attempted, with some individual modification to fit better a particular class group, for the next school year. This was done with the idea that at the end of this trial period the year's work would be evaluated in the light of actual experience in the program and the program revised accordingly.

The ninth grade core program as suggested by this teacher group included a selection from these units:

Life Can Be Beautiful—a unit of values and appreciations

What Makes Us Tick—a unit for study of human behavior and relationships

There Are No Robinson Crusoes—a unit of study on economic interdependence

Peace or Pieces—a study of necessity for and requirements of world peace

Am I Getting My Money's Worth—a consumer study

It's Up to Me—a vocations unit

LAUNCHING THE UNIT

The problem, *What Makes Us Tick?* once introduced, needed no obviously planned initiation. Students were enthusiastic from the beginning. Ideas were projected swiftly, and activity reigned. Because of its very nature, the unit was undoubtedly considered vital by the students.

The class discussed with their teacher why such a problem was important for them to study and what they thought should be included that would be of most help to them.

They decided there were many questions they wanted answered for their own immediate benefit and that they might as well start with those. Together they listed on the blackboard some of the problems that bothered them at the time. One of the students was selected by the teacher temporarily to write the questions on the board, while another student, who had volunteered for the job, acted as secretary for the day and listed them on her paper.

PLANNING TOGETHER

The next day, many pupils had new ideas for studying their problems, and a few had brought in newspaper clippings that referred to personal problems of human understanding. Since enthusiasm was high and ideas were "popping," the teacher allowed exploratory discussion to continue through part of the period. After opportunity for self-expression, the teacher led the class to evaluate their ideas to-date and to see the need for planning and organization. This was easy to do since similar evaluation had occurred in their first unit for the year, an orientation unit.

The class decided (1) that they needed to organize their class members into groups with a steering committee in charge, to effect maximum accomplishment, (2) that they needed to organize and classify their listed problems in order to utilize their time and efforts most wisely, and (3) that, since the source materials that would

help them were most abundant in current literature, and this widely scattered, one of the first jobs would be to collect immediately as many of these materials as possible. The remainder of this period was spent in preparing individual written objectives, plans, and ideas for personal growth and group contribution. These were discussed individually with the teacher. Individual lists of problems were compiled according to personal interests and needs.

Following their own plan, the next step seemed to be organization of personnel. Preceded by a rapid review, with their teacher, of good parliamentary procedure, the class elected for their steering committee Anna and Joe as Chairman and Vice-chairman, respectively, and Helen as the Secretary.

As instructed by the class Anna had the secretary write on the blackboard the list of problems suggested for study. Together they tried several schemes for classifying the problems into topics until the form below was evolved: Problems (worded for student use) dealing with:

1. What parents should expect of us and what we desire and expect of our parents.

This topic involved such ideas as mutual respect and responsibility, general family relationships, and spending money, freedom from parental supervision.

2. How we can get started in social activities in our own age groups.

This included problems on being accepted into the group and being accepted by the opposite sex.

3. How to have a successful "date."

This topic was most popular. It included such problems as how to make a date, what to do on a date, proper age for beginning dating, the cost of a date, proper dress for a date, accepted date etiquette, and what time to be home from a date.

4. What to do, according to the rules of etiquette, in certain embarrassing situations.

Here, students wanted to know the rules of table etiquette, host and/or hostess etiquette, guest courtesy, how to make introductions, and who goes first.

5. When we should give gifts on our own, separate from "the family" giving.

Interests within this topic centered around problems of when and to

whom gifts should be given, how much to pay for the various gift occasions, and how to acknowledge appreciation for gifts received.

6. How to entertain at parties and other social activities.

Ideas for games, and other party activities were desired. Students wanted to know how to "get started" at social functions, how to "break the ice" and "keep the party rolling."

With this organization of problems, the pupils were given a chance to request their first and second choices of which of the six committees they would like to be a part. These requests were considered by the steering committee with the understanding that as far as practicable first choices would be granted, but that in case of unbalanced numbers, some students might be asked to take their second choices. No more than five people were asked to make this adjustment, and they did it willingly.

Under the leadership of the steering committee, each of the six class committees was organized and started on its committee problems. The class list of problems was to be used as a beginning from which the committees would further develop their special areas and be responsible for their particular part of the study. It was understood that no one committee would do all of the work of its area, but would plan and be responsible for the whole group study of, and participation in, that area. Each class committee elected its own chairman, vice-chairman, and secretary.

WORKING TOGETHER

In the first stage of planning, the teacher discussed with her class the importance of setting goals so that they could keep their work going in a desirable direction and so that they could measure in some degree the extent of their growing as they worked. Together the tentative objectives listed below were identified, with the agreement that as the work progressed they could modify or supplement as they thought best. The problem areas identified the specific goals established in relation to the understandings desired, but, in general, the *desired understandings* seemed to be (worded for student use):

1. To understand ourselves better.
2. To find satisfactory answers to and/or information on our own problems.
3. To understand how to get along with adults better.

Personal Skills desired were:

1. To be more at ease in talking in front of the group.
2. To feel more "at home" in talking to adults.
3. To make our committee work more efficient and productive.
4. To learn to "get along" with all types of people in all situations.

Scholastic skills were a carry-over from previous goals. They were:

1. To improve our oral and written grammar.
2. To improve techniques of oral and written expression.

The teacher had additional objectives for her students but did not divulge them directly at this time. As the work continued, most of these evolved and were recognized by the students themselves.

In the meantime, materials had been accumulating, and a small library was being established in the classroom. The librarian had been consulted by the students, and library materials explored for helpful information. The core teacher, in anticipation of the needs, had previously ordered through the school library about forty books from the Maryland State Library Extension Service. The books included novels, as well as factual material, and were on various reading levels estimated to fit the abilities of the pupils involved in the study. Magazine articles and newspaper clippings were contributed to the "materials pool" by students.

As these materials came in, the class examined them, evaluated them according to the use that could be made of each, and decided what committee or committees could benefit most from them.

A list of most of the teaching materials used is included at the end of this report.

Committees met separately and together. For committee rooms, they sometimes used the hall, a vacant classroom, and the library, besides their own classroom.

Separately the committees planned, read for information, prepared notes for oral and written reports, discussed, and practiced presentation. Some committees planned and executed bulletin board displays. Others wrote newspaper articles about their work for the school paper. Some conducted surveys by interview method, soliciting opinions of teachers, parents, and other students. Some wrote scripts for dramatizations in the classroom to put over their point better.

Together the committees reported their progress at various intervals, accounting for their individual and group participation. Together they evaluated these reports and gave suggestions to one another for improvement in the light of their objectives. There was constant interaction of individual work, committee work, and whole class work, and evaluation of same. Some committees, at such times, requested the help of the whole class in executing certain projects.

Some outstanding examples of their activities are listed below:

1. Two boys of the committee working on dating problems were concerned with how to make a date with a girl. They had read parts of several books on the subject and had discussed it in committee. Deciding they should dramatize the information, they requested the class to submit scripts dramatizing points they explained to the class. There followed instruction by the teacher on how to write a script. This was practiced by the whole group, and scripts were submitted to the boys, who then selected "in committee" what they thought was the best. Actually, the final dramatization as presented to the class was a composite of two scripts selected by the boys.
2. In another group, two girls were working on "How Can You Adapt Yourself to Social Activities?" They wanted to develop a list of questions for class discussion as a technique of their presentation, but couldn't get started to their satisfaction. They brought their problem out of committee to the class as a whole. The class soon gave them a list of questions they would like to discuss. The girls took these suggestions, added some ideas of their own and later gave a very good report to the class.
3. Besides doing small group work within their committee, the committee on "dating" decided to do a poll of a representation of the school population on controversial date problems. After making a dummy of their poll, they presented it to the class for criticism and suggestions.

The revised poll was dittoed, and representatives selected by the committee chairman went to designated classrooms, at a time arranged for with the principal, to conduct the polls. Later these representatives reported back to the class their impressions of the reactions of the classes visited. It was decided to poll one section of grades 7, 8, 9, 10 and 11, besides their own 9B section, the faculty, and some of their own parents who were willing to state their opinions.

This activity involved class preparation and practice in presenting the polls in the various rooms, besides much critical evaluation on the effective organization and wording of the poll itself.

Later, this committee criticized their poll again in the light of class reactions when they conducted the poll.

Results when tabulated were kept separated for the purpose of comparing responses of teachers and parents with those of students, and responses of younger students with those of older students with those of their own class. Since the number in each of the groups contacted was not the same, percentages had to be figured for fair comparison.

4. Another group wanted find the cost of corsages for formal activities. The class suggested they phone or visit a local florist. Telephone calls and personal interviews were practiced in class.
5. Another group asked for class instruction and practice in writing invitations to social activities, and acceptance and "thank you" notes.
6. Information and ideas were solicited from the home economics and physical education departments for suggestions for "party fun."
7. The class as a whole kept an annotated bibliography of the books and other materials used. Instruction and practice were given in the mechanics of a bibliography correctly written with accompanying annotations. Involved in this project was evaluation of the books for various purposes, and later the committee bibliographies were "sold" orally to the rest of the class in order to interest others in reading them, too.
8. In the case of debatable information presented, the class investigated various authorities quoted for purposes of accuracy and reliability. It was discovered that the date of publication was a very important item to be considered.

CULMINATING THE UNIT

As individuals, committees, and the class brought their studies to a close, the steering committee scheduled their final reports and

presentations to the class. These presentations were in various forms, according to committee plans approved by their teacher.

Standards of good presentation were discussed and a checklist was compiled by the class for evaluation purposes.

Culmination activities encompassed oral reports, round table discussions, skits, "radio" talks, and student-written quizzes. In each case, the entire class was brought into participation in the activity by the committee presiding.

Written committee and individual reports were submitted to the teacher at the end of the activities. These committee reports indicated individual contributions to the group work so that they were excellent means of evaluation of individual progress during the unit.

Final class evaluation came, when, after committee reports, the teacher took the class back to the original student-teacher-made goals and led them to view their class and individual growth in view of those goals. It was decided that outcomes actually covered more growth than the objectives included. Additional outcomes listed at various intervals during the development of the unit included learning to write bibliographies, learning to work better in a group (sometime as follower, sometime as leader), appreciating the other fellow's contributions, taking responsibility for getting a specified piece of work accomplished by a specified time, meeting other classes to put across a point, learning good telephone etiquette, learning to write a script, and others.

The class also pointed out noticeable progress by particular individuals in the group. Committee reports included their small group evaluation of their individual members. In some instances, individual pupil-teacher conferences were used for evaluation purposes, and original individual lists of problems and plans for personal study were consulted and related accomplishment evaluated.

EVALUATING THE UNIT

The reader will note that evaluation was an interactive process throughout the entire unit and has been included in this report as part of the planning and activities. Pupil evaluation of self, pupil evaluation of others, and teacher evaluation of pupil are obvious;

likewise, evaluation of group progress as well as that of individual growth is obvious. These evaluation techniques were used throughout the year as a continuous growth-consciousness pattern.

This section on evaluation then will be confined for this report to a few remarks on teacher evaluation of success of the unit. It is thought by the teacher that

1. There was a maximum amount of whole-class participation and interest in the unit.
2. There was excellent growth in group co-operation and planning and a maximum of appreciation of and consideration for the other fellow's opinion and contributive value to the group.
3. There was sincere interest in improving oral and written skills to make their work more accurate and effective.
4. There was increased poise in and respect for proper boy-girl social relationships.
5. The self and group consciousness was commendable and lasting, and was applied by the students to situations beyond core class.

The teacher admits, however, two outstanding shortcomings: (1) that an opportunity was missed in not extending the activity into a planned social event—perhaps a night, or even a school-time activity—for practicing the rules and opinions concluded by the class, with the advantage of teacher and pupil advice and counsel on such an occasion, and (2) that more parent cooperation might have been utilized had arrangements been made for joint pupil-parent sessions, in addition to parent interviews conducted. Transportation problems and an already rather full school calendar would have made such experiences necessarily limited in extent of participation, but probably they could have been realized on a small scale.

LEADS TO OTHER UNITS

Although the subject content of the succeeding units of work did not center about a common single theme, the underlying purposes and understandings were consistently followed and developed through the year, with recurring evaluation reverting to original

desired growth goals and encompassing the newly developed objectives with each new unit. There were also recurring references to *What Makes Us Tick* as other units were studied; for example, comparisons were made to "our way of doing things," "what difference does that make to our living," and "what influence are we to that situation or to those people?" as occupations were studied later in the year, as economic interdependence between countries was investigated, and as a study of people of other countries and societies was made.

TEACHING MATERIALS

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FILMS

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Act Your Age (Emotional Maturity). 16 mm sd B & W 13½ minutes

Dating: Do's and Don't's. 16 mm sd B & W 13½ minutes

Everyday Courtesy. 16 mm sd B & W 10 minutes

Improving Your Posture. 16 mm sd B & W 10 minutes

Shy Guy. 16 mm sd B & W 13½ minutes

UNDERSTANDING HOW TO LEARN²

THE SETTING OF THE UNIT

This unit was developed by my eleventh-grade core class in John Muir College, a four-year junior college (grades 11 to 14 inclusive), one of two community colleges in the Pasadena City School System. Having an enrollment of 2500, this institution affords each student an opportunity to follow a continuous four-year program in either of two curricula, *certificate* and *terminal*, both of which offer general education for effective living but differ in aims and requirements. The former curriculum enables students to take work leading to a bachelor's degree, and the latter prepares students for more immediate employment at trade or semi-professional levels. No sharp line of demarcation separates students terminating the last two years of high school and those taking work in the first two years of the standard college program. Classes are heterogeneous in grouping; each teacher serves on both upper and lower division levels; and students from both may be enrolled in the same courses, provided they have finished the proper prerequisites.

General education at the eleventh grade level, the freshman year of John Muir College, consists of a two-semester, two-hour daily core class in English and United States history, taught by the same instructor for both semesters. Not only is this program geared to afford maximum growth in communication skills and in an understanding of the American way of life—its literature and history—but it is so organized as to yield indispensable personal, educational, and vocational guidance for freshmen. The eleventh grader thus has a

² Prepared by Armen Sarafian, Teacher, John Muir College, Pasadena City School System, Pasadena, California.

"home base" which helps him become properly adjusted to the academic, social, and cultural life of the college. The core teacher becomes the advisor for the approximately thirty students in his class. To him are available all the guidance resources of the college and to him are directed matters affecting his advisees. Moreover, he is given a great deal of latitude in selecting and providing the kinds of experiences that will achieve the objectives of the core program.

My core class consisted of thirty-one eleventh-grade boys and girls, fifteen to seventeen years of age, with an I. Q. distribution of 90 to 145. Each student was enrolled in two other subjects and physical education. Core was the only class that all the students had at the same hour and in common, although many were taking sciences, mathematics, and languages for their two electives. During the four weeks that we worked on this project, we devoted nearly one hundred per cent of our two hours per day to it.

INITIATING THE UNIT

On the first day of school after introductions, I asked my students to hand in on unsigned papers all the pressing problems facing them. A temporary planning committee, consisting of six volunteers, met with me after school and helped to classify these problems. We found that the problem of most immediate concern was "Understanding Our School." With the approval of the class, the planning committee and I outlined a week's study of the map of the campus, the curriculum of John Muir College, the faculty, the staff, the student body organization, the club activities, and other aspects of campus life. To assist us in this project we asked representatives of school organizations and members of the administrative staff to visit our class and answer our questions. As part of our study, we took a tour of the entire campus, spent one period in the library, observed an Associated Student Body Board meeting, read and discussed the A.S.E. constitution, and scrutinized the college catalog and the freshman handbook. These experiences instilled in us an "esprit de corps" and contributed markedly to teacher-student and student-student rapport. Although we were showing signs of arriving at an atmosphere of mutuality and social sensitivity, we were

not yet very well-versed in planning and working together. To help my class gain additional insight in operating democratically, I showed the motion picture, *We Plan Together*.³ During the discussion that followed the film, my students were overwhelmingly in favor of teacher-student planning of the course of study. They voted to write a class constitution providing for elected executive officers, a steering committee, other standing classroom committees, and quarterly elections.

Upon completion of our short-term unit, "Understanding Our School," we were faced with the question, "What next?" A great number of suggestions for investigation were advanced by my students, chief among which were the following:

1. Conserving and restoring our natural resources
2. Understanding our heritage
3. Controlling the atom bomb and making atomic energy serve mankind
4. Getting along with the opposite sex
5. Learning how to study
6. Discovering causes, effects, and solutions for the slum problem
7. Understanding our economic world

As some members of the class were confused about the objectives of this project, we decided to establish criteria to guide us in making an intelligent decision. The following were accepted by the class:

1. The unit should be of genuine worth to everyone.
2. The unit should be based on a problem that is interesting to everyone.
3. The unit should enable each student to participate in and contribute to its progress.
4. The unit activities should give us practice in working democratically.
5. There should be sufficient library materials and other resources to help us reach verifiable and significant findings.
6. The unit should be short in duration in order to permit us to undertake several projects during the year.

The next day we formed seven committees, one for each of the seven topics proposed by the class. These committees analyzed the

³ *We Plan Together*. TC 1948, 20 min. Produced by Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation, Columbia University.

unit topics in terms of these criteria. At the end of the hour the committees were ready to make their reports. At the beginning of the second hour we formed our large discussion circle, heard the committee recommendations, and evaluated their proposals. Finally, the class narrowed the choice of topics to "Getting along with the opposite sex" and "Learning how to study." Students who favored the former argued that they had never before considered the problem in any of their classes; that they were faced with such matters as going steady, behaving on dates, finances, and choosing one's friends; and that they felt the need for some guidance "here and now." Proponents of the unit on studying proclaimed a great need for learning the best study procedures, particularly in sciences and foreign languages. After a somewhat heated discussion during which no clear-cut decision was reached, one of the boys offered a compromise. Said he, "Let us spend two or three days discussing boy-girl relations, and then we can make a more detailed study later in the semester." The class unanimously accepted his solution. After three days of reading, reporting, and class discussions on boy-girl relations, we felt satisfied that we had cleared some of the clouds of confusion. The stage was now all set for plunging into the unit, "Learning how to study."

PLANNING THE UNIT

After we had chosen the unit, we were confronted with selecting objectives and determining the scope of our unit. Feeling that we could accomplish more through small group discussions, we divided the class into six committees and allowed each one approximately thirty minutes in which to explore the preliminary phases of our unit. At the end of that time, we reconvened to hear the six spokesmen. Our class secretary wrote their ideas on the blackboard, and from these the class accepted the following objectives:

1. Diagnosing our study needs
2. Learning how to study for different subjects
3. Practicing worthwhile study procedures
4. Giving everyone a chance to contribute in this project
5. Creating something that we can display.

Finding out that they lacked adequate information for fixing the scope and time limits of the units, my students recommended that we establish committees to (1) make a bibliography of library materials pertaining to studying, (2) investigate audio-visual aids on study skills, and (3) locate resource persons that we could bring into the class. Moreover, they favored taking a census of their study problems. This furnished the cue for my question, "Would you like to know how you rank in study habits on the basis of national norms for your age and grade level?" Upon receiving their affirmative answer, I mentioned that I could get a study skills test, constructed by the research office of the Pasadena City Schools. One girl, suddenly catching a glint of what I was leading to, exclaimed, "That will help us find out what our study difficulties really are! Then we can work on our weaknesses." The following day my class took the *Wrenn Study-Habits Inventory* and the *Study Skills Test*.

Within one day, I had obtained the test results and the students had plotted their scores on graphs. Then I returned the test booklets to them and gave them a chance to sit in groups of five to review each of the items in these two diagnostic tools. Discovering that they did not know the answers to many questions on such library resources as the *Cumulative Card Index* and the *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature*, my students wanted to know where they could obtain more information on this problem. I asked for suggestions. Of course, they recommended visiting the library and having the librarian talk to us. One student remarked, "But we don't want her to think our questions are too stupid. Can't we read about the library before we go there?" Another member mentioned that he had scanned the chapter, "Using the Library," in our English textbook and felt that we all ought to study it. We turned to the chapter, got an overview of its contents, and then made assignments of the most worthwhile exercises on a division-of-labor basis. We then adjourned to the library to find the answers to the questions asked by the author. The following day we reviewed the answers to the chapter exercises, wrote on 3 x 5 cards the questions that we wished to ask the librarian, and prepared ourselves for a formal tour of the

library. This activity we found exceedingly valuable and stimulating.

As we had now diagnosed some of our weaknesses, obtained a picture of resources available, and gained a little insight into library procedures, we were ready to take a further inventory of our study needs. Again, the students wrote on 3 x 5 cards all the problems they wished answered. Typical statements were "How to comprehend what you read," "How to build your vocabulary," "How to take notes," "How to take tests," "How to get interested in studying," and "How to remember." The cards were turned over to the planning committee, which sorted and classified them. Our problems seemed to fall into the following eight categories:

1. How to learn most quickly and economically
2. How to read well
3. How to use the library
4. How to learn from audio-visual materials
5. How to follow the best study procedures
6. How to keep healthy while studying
7. How to study for special subjects
8. How to study for tests

The committee duplicated an outline of these topics and their subtopics and distributed them among their classmates. In answer to the chairman's question, "Where do we go from here?" were received such suggestions as:

Let's organize eight groups, one for each topic and let them find the answers.

Let's dramatize good and bad studying methods.

We ought to fix a study corner in our room and show the best study environment.

Let's make some posters and charts on studying.

We ought to watch other students as they study and report what good and bad habits they have.

Let's make a tape-recorded radio drama on studying.

Eventually, one girl who had been on the bibliography committee proposed that we write a book on studying that would be under-

standable to eleventh graders. She mentioned that the books on studying that the committee had reviewed seemed to be rather inadequate and too boring for boys and girls at their age level. Much debating followed. The class began to canvass the talents in the group and discovered that one girl was a remarkably proficient cartoonist; a drafting major was very skillful at lettering; several girls preparing to become secretaries were capable typists; another had writing ability. Enthusiasm began to grow and faces to glow as new possibilities were uncovered. Upon polling the reactions of the group, the planning committee chairman found the majority favoring such a project. He then asked for written statements on what each could contribute and "next steps" in our work. Chief among the suggestions was the organization of an editorial committee. At the next class meeting the following were elected: an editor-in-chief, an assistant editor, an art editor, an evaluation editor, a bibliography editor, and a head typist. To them was delegated the authority of planning the minute details for writing our book.

WORKING TOGETHER ON THE UNIT

To make sure that we had spotted the major problems in studying, the committee requested that the class interview parents, members of the faculty, university students, psychologists, and other professional persons in the community and obtain from them cards on study skills and procedures they regarded as important. From more than 1200 "how-to's" the committee arranged a detailed table of contents consisting of forty-two chapters and eight parts. Responsibility for writing these chapters was divided among the class, with each member volunteering for at least one and the more capable students accepting two chapters. The students agreed on a set of directions for writing and editing the book. These were duplicated by the editorial committee and distributed to everyone. Among the instructions were

1. Get definite, clear-cut, and accurate answers to the problem for which you are responsible.

2. Be brief. Write in telegram style.
3. Get answers from your parents, classmates, experts on psychology, successful students, successful adults, etc. Have each of them reach saturation point on the chapter you give them.
4. Get the answers from authoritative books and magazine articles.
5. Avoid duplicating the content of other chapters. (The students quickly saw that there was considerable overlapping of problems.)
6. Make your statements truthful. Check for their validity through many sources.
7. Get all the evidence you can to support your statements.
8. Probe deeply. Don't be satisfied with shallow answers.
9. Don't get a set of platitudes.
10. Cite plenty of illustrations.
11. Vary your sentences.
12. Write in accurate English.
13. Note cartoon, diagrammatic, and photographic illustrations for your chapters.
14. Prepare bibliographies for your chapters. Give annotations on books and audio-visual materials.
15. Prepare rating scales and other evaluation devices for your chapters.

As students explored all avenues of information, they discovered that (1) adults are very anxious to help adolescents improve, (2) their teachers not only suggested some worthwhile answers but they took a special interest in them thereafter, (3) sources differed in the answers they gave, (4) audio-visual materials in this field were exceedingly limited, (5) the school psychologist and members of the psychology department of our school had so much to offer that the whole class should hear them, (6) the book could not succeed without the combined efforts of everyone, (7) there was much satisfaction and gratification in working for a common purpose, and (8) the most important aspect of studying was knowing how to learn and having strong motivation.

To obtain answers to "how to study" problems, the trustees of the various chapters of our book went to four main sources: (1) fellow classmates and other eleventh graders, (2) parents, older brothers and sisters, and adult friends, (3) teachers, specialists in studying, professional men and women in the community, and librarians and audio-visual education directors, (4) books, period-

icals, motion pictures, and filmstrips. They began their investigations by jotting down on separate 2½ x 4½ inch slips all the answers that came to their minds. They then asked their peers to reach the saturation point in answering each of the problems. As they obtained answer slips from a great many sources, they noticed conflicts in points of view. These they discussed in class and tried to resolve by reading the most up-to-date materials possible. One of the most valuable class meetings was a question and answer session with Dr. Margaret E. Bennett, author of *College and Life* and Director of Psychological Services for John Muir College and Pasadena City College. They asked her to clear up some of the confusion that so many contradictory answers were causing and she responded very impressively. Attached to this unit are the many books and limited number of audio-visual materials that were studied by the class.

After the students had exhausted all the materials available to them, they assembled the slips preparatory to writing their chapters. The actual composition work involved in drafting the chapters was the most functional English experience that they could have had. They constantly asked for help in making their writing effective and sparkling. They used their grammar handbooks intently as they wrote and rewrote their chapters until they were satisfied with the product. Completed chapters were duplicated and distributed to the class for their criticism. After undergoing thorough analysis, the chapters were accepted or rejected by the class. Authors of chapters that were approved helped those who were unfinished. At the end of three weeks all the chapters were ready for their final typing and duplicating. At this point the editorial committee became responsible for unifying the book, illustrating it, preparing the preface and other introductions, and managing the innumerable details that confronted them. While the committee was engrossed in this way, the rest of the class carried on the following significant activities:

1. Listening to student reports on research findings.
2. Seeing skits on good and bad techniques in reading; on note-taking, outlining, interviewing, and investigating procedures; on learning

from audio-visual materials; and on taking and passing examinations.

3. Preparing simulated radio programs. Students made tape recordings of documentaries on the importance of keeping physically, mentally, and emotionally fit and on the necessity for having purposeful goals.
4. Observing study procedures of workers in the library and study hall. These were rated and results were discussed in class.
5. Rating by parents of the study habits of their offspring.
6. Doing drill work (requested by class) on memorizing, outlining, and note-taking.
7. Working on exercises for vocabulary improvement.
8. Conducting panel discussions on "Radio, television, and motion pictures and their effect on studying," and "How can a student achieve high marks and also participate in school activities."
9. Listening to radio forums, discussions, or lectures and outlining or taking notes on what they had heard.
10. Drilling on reading speed and comprehension. Not only did the students want timed reading drills but they eagerly sought tachistoscopic training.

BRINGING THE UNIT TO A CLOSE

News of our project spread all over the school, and a report on it was published in the school paper. As a result, our class received an invitation to discuss study procedures before other core classes. It was with much enthusiasm and some stage-fright that members of the class prepared their reports and delivered them to fellow eleventh graders in other rooms. As they had achieved a great understanding of learning principles and study procedures, they were able to conduct themselves very creditably while they discussed specific questions directed to them. The fact that they knew so much about "learning how to learn" gave them a genuine feeling of success. They were able to translate this feeling into presentations that manifested a high degree of assurance and confidence. This in turn earned for them very high plaudits from other core teachers and classes.

The unit was culminated upon the unveiling of our book. Unfortunately, certain phases of the book did not measure up to the

high standards the class had demanded. They decided, therefore, that they should permit the committee to continue refining the book until it was as good as possible. They would then determine whether or not they should have it published.

EVALUATING THE UNIT

Evaluation of the unit took three forms: (1) examination of specific skills learned from this activity, (2) evaluation of democratic values gained, (3) analysis of the over-all effectiveness of the unit.

To measure objectively the fundamentals in reading and writing that were learned, the students were tested by two forms of the *Co-operative English test*, two forms of the *Iowa Reading test*, and the *Progressive Achievement Test*. Compared on the basis of national norms, pre-testing revealed that my students on the average ranked 60th percentile in reading speed, 40th percentile in comprehension, 70th percentile in grammar, and 20th percentile in effectiveness of written expression (*Co-operative English test*). Post-test data indicated decided average improvement as follows: 68th percentile in reading speed, 60th percentile in comprehension; 75th percentile in grammar, and 50th percentile in effectiveness of expression. In certain individual cases there were gains up to 200 per cent. To me, this improvement reflected the high motivation that was present and the better insight about learning that my students had gained. Some of the students were challenged to such an extent that they established for themselves systematic self-improvement programs in reading, vocabulary, grammar, and effective expression. For these students I provided special drill and review periods during my office hours. Moreover, my students learned how to plan, conduct, and report research. Such skills as making outlines, taking notes, writing footnotes, and preparing bibliographies became common knowledge. During the rest of the year they developed additional skill in writing term papers. No longer were they terrified at such assignments. Improving reading and writing skills became a continuous project in our class. Thrilling to me was the zeal of my

students to better themselves and their desire to take advantage of all the in-class and out-of-class help I could afford them. Above all, I felt that my students had gained a great deal in utilizing all the resources that would help them grow.

To evaluate democratic values, my class and I prepared a scale by which each one could rate himself and his classmates. This device not only showed them how they ranked in relation to their associates but also gave them criteria toward which they could strive. Secondly, each one wrote essays describing his progress in working democratically and recommending improvements in the democratic process in our group. Such subjective communication became projective in nature and therapeutic in effect. As I observed the class in action, I could not help feeling that each was learning how to share in an important group effort and that each was accepted for what he could contribute. That we made use of all the talent and creativity of our class gave some of them a sense of accomplishment and group feeling that had been a rare feature in their past lives. As we tested and compared facts that we obtained from different sources, we learned to use the method of intelligence. In fact, one of our chapters was entitled "How to Think Straight." Our discussion of this problem was very fruitful.

In evaluating the effectiveness of the unit as a whole, we discussed specific and general gains. The consensus of opinion in my class was that we had become much more proficient in studying and that we had learned how to cooperate, how to accept and give constructive criticism, how to be sensitive to the problems of one another, and how to use the scientific method. We felt that we had much to learn about working together and obtaining maximum output for time spent. We agreed that we should have allotted more time to this project, but we realized that we would be doing so at the expense of learning about other personal and social problems.

In my opinion, I should have involved more resource persons directly in our classroom. Unfortunately, it was difficult to do so. Moreover, I should have encouraged my class to describe this unit over our local radio station, for I believe that such an experience would have been very profitable. Above all, I wish that it had been

possible to construct better objective measuring instruments to assess the success of this unit.

LEADS TO OTHER UNITS OF WORK

Obviously, this unit furnished many avenues to pursue. First and foremost, it furnished a basis for our unit "Understanding Ourselves." Secondly, it led to our study, "Choosing Our Life's Work." We capitalized on our knowledge by developing a reading appreciation program, by taking all kinds of written examinations to become "test-wise," by working at personality improvement, and by studying propaganda in our society.

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PUTTING UN AND UNESCO AIMS AND IDEALS TO WORK IN DAILY LIVING—AN EXPERIMENTAL UNIT OF WORK FOR A9 PUPILS ⁴

THE SETTING OF THE UNIT

The unit of work whose story is presented in the pages that follow was accomplished in a ninth-grade English-Social Studies class at Samuel Gompers Junior High School in Los Angeles, California.

Gompers Junior High School is a three-year junior high school, including grades 7, 8, and 9. The school is located in the south-central section of the city in a community of families with generally modest and low incomes. There are approximately 1500 pupils enrolled. During the past few years, the character of the neighborhood has been changing with the gradual influx of new residents in attractive new housing projects. Enrollment at Gompers is drawn from six elementary schools.

The common concern of the school program is to develop and further the democratic way of life. Its concept of democracy is based on the following principles: (1) respect for the worth of the individual, (2) respect for freedom and assumption of reciprocal and group responsibility for promoting the common concern, (3) faith in intelligence in the solution of common problems, (4) importance of an informed citizenry. Growth in desired qualities of citizenship are the anticipated outcomes of the total school program. The general objectives of the school, therefore, are aimed at promoting growth in respect for the worth of the individual, in tolerance, in respect for civil liberties. In respect for authority and leadership, in self-direction, in social sensitivity, in co-operation, in healthful living, in critical-mindedness, in expression, and in the understanding and practice of democratic ways. To this end the school endeavors to provide constant opportunities for the development of attitudes and concepts which will maintain democratic institutions. The total school program is thus organized and administered to

⁴ Prepared by Norma Gibson, Teacher, Samuel Gompers High School, Los Angeles, California.

assume the responsibility of training pupils in the ability to reach their goals successfully and in so doing to contribute effectively to the attainment of the goals of the society in which they live. Since the school is considered a miniature community, its curriculum is organized to provide experience in all the democratic practices which are necessary to equip a person for successful citizenship. Besides the experiences resulting from class instruction, an extensive program of school service through school-government organizations, social and special-interest clubs, and sports activities are integral parts of the educational situation.

Basic to the philosophy of Gompers Junior High School is the concept of needs as the basis of personality adjustment. This philosophy recognizes (1) needs arising in the adolescent from the adolescent himself, from his experiences, and from society, and (2) needs arising from the child's longings, desires, wants, and purposes and also from the demands of the society and culture in which he lives. Therefore there is an extensive program of guidance, effectively carried on through individual conferences and group counseling, (1) to insure a school life and environment in which the pupil has an opportunity to achieve the integration of his mental, physical, and emotional self, and (2) to plan a school program making adequate provision for individual differences among pupils.

The school is administered by a principal, a girls' vice-principal, and a boys' vice-principal. There is also a full-time counselor, three grade-counselors who have lighter teaching loads, a full-time attendance teacher, and a part-time health coordinator. There are fifty-seven teachers on the faculty.

In accordance with the requirements established by the State Board of Education and the City Board of Education, the curriculum offered in the school is organized as follows:

B7—Required: English-Social Studies, mathematics, physical education, art or music, exploratory work in industrial arts courses for boys, in agriculture and woodship, in homemaking classes for girls in clothing.

A7—Required: English-Social Studies, mathematics, physical education, art or music, exploratory work in industrial arts for boys in printing and drafting, in homemaking classes for girls in foods.

B8—Required: English-Social Studies, science, physical education, exploratory work in industrial arts for boys in metal shop and electric shop, in homemaking for girls in child care, success as a hostess, nutrition, health, etc. Opportunity for one elective is offered.

A8—Required: English-Social Studies, mathematics, physical education. Pupils may choose two electives.

B9—Required: English-Social Studies, science, physical education. Pupils may choose two electives.

A9—Required: English-Social Studies, science, physical education. Pupils may choose two electives.

Elective courses provide advanced training in vocal and instrumental music, art, homemaking classes, industrial arts classes, office practice, journalism, leadership, library practice, and typing.

The English-Social Studies class, the class in which the unit "Putting UN and UNESCO Aims and Ideals to Work in Daily Living," was taught, is developed throughout the three years as an integrated course which definitely fuses social studies, geography, and language arts, and at the grade levels where possible correlates music, art, and science in the core. The basic course in the English-Social Studies class which meets two periods daily, includes:

1. *Guidance in meeting personal and social needs of pupils:* The primary purpose of the English-Social Studies class is to provide a guidance center where there may be at all times a consideration of the persistent problems and needs of the junior high-school pupil by a teacher who is skilled in this type of work and who knows his pupils well enough to carry on such activity successfully. The English-Social Studies teacher is thus more aware of personal needs of pupils and so is directly responsible for individual guidance and for leadership in group conferences of teachers concerning matters of guidance. The work of the English-Social teacher is complemented by that of the grade counselor and coordinated and directed by the full-time counselor and administrator.

2. *Experiences in democratic processes and representative government:* Naturally democratic procedures are essential in the operation of the English-Social Studies class. Classes elect officers and aid in determining general classroom organization and procedures. They

The Curriculum in Action

are given opportunities to help in planning procedures and activities for unit studies and in suggesting classroom policies. Each English-Social Studies class is also the unit for representation in the School Council, the Boys' League, and the Girls' League. Representatives from each class are elected by popular vote. They attend semi-monthly meetings of these bodies where they help in choosing school-wide policies and in the governing of the student body. English-Social Studies classes become centers for discussion, suggestion, and action in carrying out the school government program. School problems, in addition to rules and regulations, are also analyzed and conclusions are formulated to guide school government organizations in their activities.

3. *Social-Studies content:* B7—This semester includes an extensive orientation program designed to acquaint the new pupils with all phases of Gompers school life, units of work on the local community, the city of Los Angeles, the State of California, and concepts of world geography. A7—Study is begun on the American Epic, particular emphasis being placed on social, cultural, economic, and geographic influences. In this semester work is covered on the age of exploration and discovery, the colonial period, and the revolutionary period. B8 and A8—The American Epic is continued with units of work on the New Government, the Westward Movement, the Age of Industrial Expansion, and the International Leadership of the United States. B9—The ninth year is concerned with the development of an appreciation and understanding of the contemporary cultures of peoples different from ours, and of their contributions to our cultural heritage. One of the major aims, of course, is the development of a feeling of world understanding and an understanding of the aims and ideals of the United Nations. In the B9 semester, units of work are organized around the British Commonwealth of Nations, and the Orient. A9—Units of work are developed around the culture of the Latin-American countries, and in Gompers there is a more detailed study of the United Nations and especially of UNESCO.

4. *Training in fundamental language skills.* Increasing growth in reading, writing, and speaking skills is accomplished throughout the

The Classroom Illustrates Learning Units

English-Social Studies program; the close relationship between communication needs and the learning experiences is constantly kept in mind.

On the basis of immediate needs, a comprehensive testing program, and guides established by Board of Education courses of study, pupils are taught reading skills and techniques, correct usage, understanding of the sentence, the writing of well-organized paragraphs and compositions, spelling, study techniques in the use of the topic sentence, summary, outline, and note taking, skill in individual and group oral presentation, and appreciation for various forms of literature.

The particular English-Social Studies class in which the unit of work on United Nations and UNESCO was taught was an A9 class consisting of thirty pupils; unfortunately only six were boys. Indexes of mental ability ranged from 90 to 115. In the class there were two Negro pupils, four pupils with Mexican background, one with Italian background, and one girl who came from Puerto Rico during the semester and who was learning the English language. In general the class was a fairly homogeneous group as was shown by an earlier sociogram and by observation. As a group they demonstrated loyalty to their group and to individuals within the group. Their activities were characterized by normal inquisitiveness and by a most welcome enthusiasm. In general there was a wholesome and hearty appreciation for the school and its program; pupils who were quite active in school government activities included the student-body president, the school government parliamentarian, a member of the school finance committee, and the assistant secretary of the student body. Their capacity for self-direction and co-operation was well developed, and they had a definite inclination toward group work.

INITIATION OF THE UNIT

In a discussion reviewing some of the understandings and concepts developed through the ninth-year course of study in social studies, the teacher took advantage of points relating to the world outlook and an obvious interest in the workings of the United Na-

tions derived from discussion of current news stories, to lead the following discussion:

TEACHER: "In the past two and one-half years, we have had an opportunity to broaden our understanding of the world in which we live, but more important, to understand and appreciate the many worlds in which we live today. If we stop to think a moment, we shall all agree that a person who is growing up lives in many worlds at the same time. For instance, when you came to us in the B7, you entered a new world of living. Who can tell us what that was?"

A PUPIL: "That's easy. That was our life in junior high school."

TEACHER: "Yes, the world which included our school. All of you remember learning about this particular school, its place in your life, and your place in its life. Since those early weeks in the B7, you have been given experiences whose aims have been to enlarge and enrich your understanding of, and participation in, other worlds of living. You have seen yourselves not only as a part of your school, but also as a living part of your community, your city, your state, the United States, and this year you have reached out to the international scene through your studies of the British Empire, China and Japan, the U. S. S. R., and Latin America.

"I think we are about to tie these studies together with a few weeks' work investigating the organization to which all the world looks for peace and cooperation among the nations of the world, and for the development of a better life for the peoples of the world. Who can tell us what this organization is?"

A PUPIL: "The United Nations."

ANOTHER PUPIL (speaks out): "Aw, who wants to study about the United Nations?"

TEACHER: "That's a very good question, and any time spent in a study of the United Nations without knowing our purposes for such a study would be time wasted. Just as the nations who belong to the United Nations must know and understand exactly where the United Nations is going if it is to succeed, we must know where we are going—what our outcomes of a study of the United Nations must be, really—if *our* work is to be of any value. Now who can help us

answer Philip's question, which is, 'Who wants to study about the United Nations?'

The teacher then wrote the question on the board, and suggestions were made by several members of the class in answer to Philip's question. They were listed on the blackboard, too. Some of these were:

1. "Since the war things are in a mess and the UN is organized to straighten things out."
2. "We are growing up and we ought to know what's going on."
3. "Our own country is a very strong leader in the UN."
4. "We can understand the news we find in the papers and hear on the radio better if we know something about what the United Nations stands for and how it works."
5. "Maybe we can learn some things about the United Nations' goals and aims that we can help with in the things we do every day."
6. "We certainly have to know a lot about the UN if we expect to believe in it and help it in the years to come."
7. "We hear a lot about UNESCO these days in our school, and maybe we should know more about *it* and how it is helping the United Nations."

In the course of the discussion which grew out of making the list, the teacher noticed an aroused interest in a study of the United Nations and particularly about UNESCO, the organization whose work was most significant to the pupils since they had already become familiar with some of its activities from a study of UNESCO work in Haiti and the Hylean-Amazo project, part of their work on Latin America. The teacher therefore referred to the point she had made earlier about "knowing where we are going" in a study of the United Nations and suggested that pupils consider whether or not they wished to spend some time learning about the United Nations and UNESCO. For homework they were asked to list these things and to offer them to the class discussion which would be continued the next day.

Using the list of reasons for knowing something about the United Nations as a springboard, pupils and teacher together during the next two days set up a list of objectives—or anticipated outcomes—

for the unit. Their splendid suggestions were proof enough that investigating the United Nations and its affiliate, UNESCO, had been accepted as a challenge by the class. Objectives were written on the board and erased sometimes because they were not acceptable to the majority of the group. When everyone was agreed that the list was satisfactory, the teacher asked if the pupils would like her to organize the list, add a few objectives in the area of language skills and study habits on which she felt they should concentrate, and have the list mimeographed so each pupil might have a copy for his own use during the study. Here is the list:

1. *Understandings* The informed pupil understands—
 - a. The origin of the United Nations out of World War II.
 - b. The aims of the United Nations.
 - c. The major organizations of the United Nations and what they do.
 - d. The outstanding work done by the specialized agencies such as UNESCO, ILO, FAO, WHO, the International Refugee Organizations, and the Universal Postal Union.
 - e. The contributions of important leaders in the growth of the United Nations.
 - f. The achievements of the United Nations in the Berlin Blockade; in Palestine, India and Pakistan, and efforts in Iran, Greece, and Korea.
 - g. The work of UNESCO in promoting education, better living, and international understanding of peoples.
 - h. The part everyone can play in helping develop United Nations and UNESCO ideals in daily life in the school and the community.
2. *Attitudes, Appreciations, and Interests* A pupil who appreciates through understanding and practice the aims and achievements of the United Nations and UNESCO increases—
 - a. His respect for the worth of every person.
 - b. His faith in human rights.
 - c. His desire to help in improving the welfare of those around him.
 - d. His respect and appreciation for the differences and likenesses of people regardless of race, color, or creed.
 - e. His practice of good neighborliness.
 - f. His effort to achieve the goals of everyday living through co-operative action.
 - g. His faith in peaceful settlement of differences through discussion.



Fig. 9. University School Class in Physical Science Working on an Automobile Engine. *Courtesy The Ohio State University School, Columbus, Ohio.*



Fig. 10. Group in Radio Speech at the University School Rehearsing for the Regular Weekly Broadcast over Station WOSU. *Courtesy The Ohio State University School, Columbus, Ohio.*

The Classroom-Illustrative Learning Units

3. *Habits, Skills, and Abilities:* A pupil through his work on this unit improves his study skills and work habits by—
- Writing compositions from organized notes and outlines on themes related to the United Nations.
 - Presenting oral individual reports or taking part in panels or forums on United Nations' subjects.
 - Analyzing information and problems and arriving at intelligent opinions through critical thinking.
 - Gathering information systematically from books, newspapers, magazines, motion pictures, etc.
 - Discussing with the class group problems arising from the unit, drawing upon information gathered in individual and group research and arriving at group decisions democratically.
 - Examining all sides of a question before reaching a conclusion.

Before the actual planning of the unit by the pupils, the teacher gave the class an attitudes test. She explained that if they reached their objectives in the unit and put a lot of thought into their work, some of their ideas might be changed. Pupils received the test with interest and were asked not to discuss their ideas until the unit was completed.

Armed with their set of objectives, the pupils decided the first thing they must do was to read all the available material about the United Nations. A few days were spent in such general reading, and then the pupils were ready to set out to accomplish their objectives.

HOW THE UNIT WAS PLANNED

Literature on United Nations subjects, suitable for use by junior high school pupils, is very scarce. The children soon found that out, but they decided to make an effort to make a collection of usable reading materials. One of the girls asked to check with the librarian to see what was available there. She returned with several books, a number of classroom sets of back issues of *Junior Scholastic*, *Junior Review*, and *Young America* with material on the United Nations, and copies of *The Civic Leader*, *United Nations World*, *UNESCO Courier*, *United Nations Bulletin*, and *UNESCO News*. With the classroom textbook sets of Tom Galt's *How the United Nations Works*, and Lois Fisher's *You and the United Nations*, a workable

classroom library was set up with a pupil librarian in charge to check materials in and out during the unit of work. Three of the girls even volunteered to go downtown to the American Association of the United Nations office and get pamphlet materials.

After the first few days of their study and discussion they saw that there were so many problems and centers of interest that they would have to divide the work and group themselves according to their interests. Much eliminating was done, but the following problems seemed uppermost:

1. What are the major organs of the United Nations and what have they accomplished?
2. What are the specialized agencies and how do they contribute to world peace?
3. What is UNESCO trying to do throughout the world?
4. What can our school do to carry out the ideals of UNESCO?
5. How will the writing of letters and the sending of gifts to boys and girls around the world aid in universal peace? What should we say in these letters?
6. Who are the outstanding leaders in the United Nations? What has made Ralph Bunche an international figure?
7. Are there any jobs in the United Nations for which we might train?
8. What makes people like or dislike other people?

Each pupil was asked to choose his group. There was some shifting to get groups that were not too large or too small, and even shifting in interest. The groups were asked to meet in various places at designated tables. It was like a Boy Scout Jamboree until the groups became organized, but getting acquainted with the group was important.

The teacher went from group to group to help in the organization. This help included seeing that each child had a specific job, and that this job was not beyond his ability. Moreover, the teacher also met regularly with the groups to suggest procedures, check written work, and suggest materials. Every effort was made to keep the work within the pupil's own purposes, and at the same time to provide the necessary guidance.

HOW THE GROUP WORKED ON THE UNIT

Groups met together, elected chairmen and recorders, and each person was asked to express himself as to what he would like to contribute to the problem of his group. Lists of possible contributions were made, discussed with the groups and teacher, and then agreed upon.

Pupils were asked to make outlines of materials read, or take good clear notes. Each pupil was asked to hand in a carefully written report of his work.

Throughout the unit, much time was spent on related spelling, writing, and grammar.

CULMINATION OF THE UNIT

A brief description of the work of each group follows:

Group 1

There were five girls and one boy in this group which decided that, since there were six major organs in the United Nations, each person would find out about one. They decided to have a panel discussion for the class at the end of their study.

This group had so much material that they were forced to compile a notebook and then choose material for their panel that was the most essential. They wanted "eye-appeal," so one of the girls drew a large chart of the major organs of UN, listing some of the accomplishments. Every day this group brought current events and pictures for the bulletin board.

Group 2

Three girls studied the ten specialized agencies. They told about each briefly and gave an example of what each agency does.

This group worked with Group 1 in making their chart, so that it would fit into the same pattern, thus completing the entire United Nations structure. An electrical transcription "Citizen of the World" was presented by this group. This transcription was obtained from the city visual-education library.

Group 3

There were three girls and two boys in this group who gave mimeo-

graphed copies of the things UNESCO is trying to do. They presented a film called "Sing a Song of Friendship." (All arrangements for audio-visual materials were made with the teacher in charge of that department). This film is a "community sing" film and everyone in the class enjoyed the songs. The group also distributed copies of the words of several national anthems of various countries and some nonsense songs from around the world. Everyone sang. (Two of the girls had arranged these songs with one of the music teachers.) Time was taken for the class to learn the songs and a little bit about the countries from which they came. Several records of great music by the world's outstanding musicians were played. Members of the group selected well-known favorites to help show how the world is unified by music—the universal language.

One boy working with one of the art teachers brought and showed pictures of famous works of art that are universal in appeal. One girl made United Nations dolls which she displayed. A United Nations scarf was added to the display.

The other boy of the group worked with one of the science teachers and tried to show what science can do for better living in the world. He made arrangements for the film, "World of Plenty," which the group previewed.

This group arranged a trip to the Los Angeles County Museum. Here they toured the rooms representing Chinese and Latin-American culture and the art exhibits. Although most of the pupils had been here before, they viewed the displays with a somewhat different "eye."

Group 4

This group of three girls and one boy had been working, of course, through the organs of the school government to stimulate plans for developing UNESCO ideals in the school. They reported what they, with the help of the sponsors and administrators, had done through school government. (The president of the study body was in this group.) They accomplished the following:

1. They began a student UNESCO Committee which would meet and plan with the faculty committee.
2. They had an all-school Friendship Tag Day.
3. They arranged a UNESCO program for an evening P.T.A. meeting which was a scheduled meeting. The entire class helped with this. They were given permission to ask assistance from the Glee Clubs, the Orchestra, the Dance-Drama Club, the Drama Department, and the principal asked an outside speaker from the Curriculum Division, who was working particularly with UNESCO materials, to be on the program. They asked another A9 Class to recite in unison the preamble to the United Nations Charter, while their own class formed a second

verse-speaking choir and recited the UNESCO preamble. Ten pupil speakers outlined the organization of the United Nations and related its achievements up to 1949

4. The entire school sent an outfit of new clothes to a German girl who was recommended by the Assistant German Youth Activity Officer of the Augsburg Military Post
5. They sponsored the Junior Red Cross Box Drive throughout the school, sending some 200 boxes around the world.
6. They sent suggestions for letter writing to boys and girls in foreign countries to all English-Social Studies classes. (These suggestions were drawn up by Group 5.)

Group 5

The principal had received a package of letters from Japanese students who wanted to correspond with American boys and girls. These had come through Miss Elizabeth Sands, former Assistant Superintendent of Los Angeles City Schools in charge of Junior High Schools, who was in Japan last year as Visiting Expert to the Secretary of the United States Army.

The class asked for twenty letters, but no one seemed to know just what Japanese students would like to know. This group worked on lists of subjects and presented them not only to the class but to the entire school. They were guided in their selection by the aims of UNESCO discovered in their reading and gathered through interviews with some members of the faculty.

In their written report they come to the conclusion that "if you know them, you can't hate them."

Group 6

Two girls and one boy presented brief biographies of some of the outstanding leaders of the United Nations. They showed pictures of them and told what each had done as a leader.

Since Ralph Bunche had graduated from high school in Los Angeles and had attended U.C.L.A., he seemed more "personalized." Mrs. Roosevelt, Trygve Lie, Dr. Torres Bodet, General Carlos P. Romulo, Dean Acheson, Andrei Vyshinsky, Ernest Bevin, and Count Bernadotte and their activities were reported and discussed.

Group 7

One girl who is planning to major in foreign languages was the only one interested in employment possibilities in the United Nations. She read what she could find and interviewed one teacher who had been to Lake Success. She told about the new United Nations Permanent Headquarters. She hopes to be employed there some day.

Group 8

This group of two girls and one boy worked out with the teacher some reasons why people like and dislike other people. They found that books on Brotherhood and Personality were the greatest help. This group provoked a great deal of class discussion. They came to the conclusion that no one is born to hate another. Hatred is something that one learns from his parents and friends. He can learn to like people by the same process. They thought that hatred was too strong a word and thought that people were prejudiced instead. (The teacher was able to give better help because of the fine Resource Unit of Intercultural Education prepared by a class under the guidance of Dr. John C. Robertson at Temple University.)

It took several days to finish the oral and written reports of each group. The groups worked in a very democratic way. Everyone was welcome in his group and was given recognition for his work. The girl from Puerto Rico was asked to be in the group for biographies. She gave her report on Dr. Bodet in Spanish and it was translated into English by one of the girls. One girl who transferred to the school only recently said it was the first time she had ever been up before a group. She was very pleased.

The class liked the group work very much. It was not entirely new to them, but they were more on their own responsibility since materials were scarce. Arrangements had to be made with teachers with whom they made contacts, thus giving a wholesome teacher-pupil relationship.

Some group problems were much more interesting than others, but the pupils listened very carefully and were interested to see how each group presented its problem. At the conclusion of each report the class gave an oral evaluation of their work.

Most groups tried to cover too much material. Other classes might like a different grouping. The group working through the student government brought the problem right down to the level of all, but the group discussing likes and dislikes of people caused more heated action.

HOW THE UNIT WAS EVALUATED

- A. Each student within his group was asked to write down a big over-all view or idea that he had received from the unit, taking into considera-

tion the ideas presented by the other groups. The group chairmen tried to group these into a few thoughts, as follows:

1. "We don't have to act and think like others but we should respect and appreciate their ways, just as we expect them to respect our ways."
 2. "If all the people in the nations tried, the United Nations could work."
 3. "The idea of a united world starts right in our own hearts."
 4. "Our school could be a wonderful example of how to get along together, for we have many races and religions."
 5. "No one nation should think that it is better than any other. Neither should any person think that he is either."
 6. "Many wonderful people spend their entire lives working for peace on earth for us."
- B. These ideas were then discussed with the class and each child then listed the ideas that he felt meant the most to him. Using these personally selected ideas, each child prepared a composition of the Unit title, "Putting UN and UNESCO Aims and Ideals to Work in Our Daily Living." These compositions presented a variety of approaches to the subject and revealed the amount of thought put into the study and the amount of thought taken out of it by each pupil.
- C. Short information quizzes were given periodically to measure the pupils' understanding of some of the basic organizations and their workings, and some of the major accomplishments, too.
- D. The attitudes test, given before the study was returned to the pupils and each was asked to consider the opinions he had previously expressed. In many cases there were heartening changes of opinion toward more desirable attitudes of world citizenship with accompanying remarks such as, "I know more about that now," "Now that I understand this better, I don't feel the same," etc. The greatest differences of opinion centered around items 6 and 10. All differences in all items were thoroughly discussed and viewpoints presented. The UNESCO group took the lead in proposing a strong disagreement with item 10.
- E. The most encouraging evaluation, a subjective one, of course, was the enthusiasm and interest shown throughout the study.

LEADS TO OTHER UNITS OF WORK

This unit ended the semester's work, and the pupils, being A9's, were graduated. However, the study left one permanent influence on the school, the UNESCO Committee.

This unit is also a direct lead into tenth grade work in social studies in senior high school.

If these pupils carry in their daily living in the future the ideas of brotherhood that were brought to mind, the results of this unit will be gratifying.

SAMPLE PRE-TEST QUESTIONS ⁵

Note to students: There are no "rights" and "wrongs" in this test. Try to give your honest feeling toward the idea given in each statement, so that we may compare your ideas with other ideas in the class.

If you *agree* with the statement, put a circle around the "A"; if you *disagree* with it, put a circle around the "D"; if you are *uncertain* about the idea, put a circle around the "U."

- A-D-U 1. Most of the people of the world want peace.
- A-D-U 2. Foreigners who come to the United States are usually not as good as we are and they lower our standards of living.
- A-D-U 3. Any world organization will fail, for there will always be war.
- A-D-U 4. If the United Nations is to be a success, the United States must be an active member.
- A-D-U 5. Every person must try to bring about better understanding among people.
- A-D-U 6. War with Russia is certain to come; therefore the United States should get ready for it.
- A-D-U 7. It is very important to each of us that the United Nations is a success.
- A-D-U 8. The United States can feel safe because disputes in Europe and Asia are so far away and there are oceans between us.
- A-D-U 9. The more we know about other people of the world, the more we can understand why they act as they do.
- A-D-U 10. All peoples of the world should try to act alike, and think alike.
- A-D-U 11. Very often people hate other people that they don't even know.
- A-D-U 12. Your first opinion of a person is always correct.

We discussed the problems to see why there was a difference of opinion on a few.

⁵ These are samples of the attitude test given to the pupils at the beginning of the Unit.

For instance, on numbers 6 and 10 there was the greatest disagreement.

FAMILY LIFE IN OTHER LANDS ⁶

THE SETTING OF THE UNIT

Trewyn Junior High School is engaged in a curriculum-development program which is being co-operatively designed by the entire staff during a continuous in-service education program. The goals for the entire school incorporated in the school philosophy, are: to develop appreciations, attitudes, skills, knowledge, values, and understandings necessary for citizenship. The school staff has agreed that it is the responsibility of the school to help pupils meet their personal-social needs and that these needs give direction to the curriculum structure.

The curriculum structure has emerged into a general education program on the 7th and 8th grade levels, and both general education and special interests in the form of electives on the 9th grade level. On the 7th and 8th grade levels there is a three-hour block of time, and on the 9th level a two-hour block of time. This is referred to as the Fundamental Learnings class where common problems of living are solved by teachers and pupils together. The remainder of the day is spent in special areas offering experiences in home living, industrial arts, arts and crafts, mathematics, music, physical education, and typing (8th). Pupils are heterogeneously grouped and are together throughout the day. At all times, the facilities of the entire building are available to all students for individual or group work. As general education outside the block of time in the 9th grade, general science, music, art, mathematics or algebra, and physical education are considered necessary for all. Special interests are clothing, foods, music, art, general shop, business, and foreign languages.

To aid in better and more effective learning the staff engages in daily pre-planning sessions scheduled on school time. Part of this

⁶ Prepared by Margarethe Faulstich Livesay, Fundamental Learnings Teacher, Trewyn Junior High School, Peoria, Illinois.

time is devoted to constructing resource units based on problem areas decided upon by each grade staff.

Seventh Grade Resource Units

Problems of School Living and Understanding Our Community
Blueprints of Democracy, a Study of Democratic Values
Problems of Living

Eighth Grade Resource Units

Problems of Self-Understanding
What Values Do We Live By?
Problems of Understanding Illinois as Miniature America—A
Study of Individuals and Groups as They Interact with
Their Environment

Ninth Grade Resource Units

Worthy Use of Leisure Time
Orientation to Senior High School
Problems of Choosing Careers
How We Get Along with Others
We, the Government

Many learning units are developed by teacher-pupil planning from these resource units. These units are planned, carried out, and evaluated particularly in the Fundamental Learnings classes, but special area teachers contribute not only to the pre-planning but also contribute learning activities and serve as consultants in other areas.

Orientation is an important problem for the 7th grade pupils who enter Trewyn in the 9th grade as one-third of the class enter from parochial schools and from a non-high-school district. For this reason the following learning unit was developed from a previously constructed resource unit.

HOW THE UNIT ORIGINATED

In seeking an opening unit for the school year which would provide opportunities for the pupils to become acquainted with one another and to acquaint the teacher with the personalities and study

habits of the pupils, reference was made to a staff prepared resource unit titled, "Getting Along With One Another." Among other orientation activities, a class period was spent discussing the one question: What problems do you as teen-agers face in the matter of getting along with one another, or in getting along with others?

The problems mentioned were as follows:

1. Money
2. Getting a job
3. Getting along in school
4. Getting along with brothers and sisters
5. Getting along with parents

The problems involving family relationships seemed to indicate the greatest concern, which prompted other questions: How do other families get along as family groups? Are these problems characteristic of all families everywhere? Someone suggested studying about family life in other countries and comparing it with family life in the United States. A number in the class had parents or grandparents who had grown up in other countries; so the possibility of making comparisons was evident.

Another class period was spent in setting up goals for the unit in response to the teacher's question: What do you hope to learn by studying family life in other countries? The pupils listed and discussed the following goals:

1. To learn how families in other countries get along.
2. To compare family life in other countries with American family life.
3. To study ourselves so that we can get along better in our own families.
4. To understand our parents better.
5. To understand sisters and brothers better.
6. To learn how families obtain a livelihood.
7. To learn what families in other countries wear.
8. To study the economic problems of families.
9. To learn that families are dependent upon communities.

Accomplishing the last goal would provide the continuity with other ninth grade study areas in community living.

PLANNING THE UNIT

The next step was one of organization to study the matter of how they could learn about family life in other lands. The class was divided into committees. A resource committee made a list of books available in the library which could be used as reference material. They also contacted all of the other members of the faculty for materials which they might have in their possession. They returned to the classroom with books, posters, pictures, and maps. An art committee planned for the use of the posters in the classroom and immediately began making a mural, but soon discovered a need to do some reading to get information before they could proceed. One committee planned possible learning activities; another selected films; while another chose stories in the literature book which could be read during the time that the other study was progressing. A bulletin board committee planned for good use of the bulletin board space available.

The activities committee reported the following possible activities:

1. Make a report on family life in another country.
2. Prepare a notebook containing the report, pictures, and some account of other activities of the unit.
3. Make a mural.
4. See movies and film strips about foreign countries.
5. Read stories about foreign family life from the literature text.
6. Make a book report on a book about life in another country.
7. Have someone who has traveled in another country speak on family life in that country.
8. Look up folk songs and sing in class.
9. Write to students in other countries.
10. Find out how many different nationalities are represented in the class.
11. Draw a map of the country on which the pupil is reporting.
12. Read a play representing family life.

WORKING ON THE UNIT

Since several pupils were interested in learning about the same country, pupils were given the privilege of working individually or in groups to do the research involved in preparing the reports. Each

pupil, however, was responsible for giving a report orally and for recording the report in an illustrative notebook. In cases where groups worked on a single country, the general topic was divided up into sub-topics for the purpose of reporting. The list of countries studied is an interesting one and included Holland, China, Hawaii, India, Italy, Canada, Korea, Latin America, Germany, and France.

Since more than half of the class were new to the school it was necessary to spend time in instruction on how to use the library and reference materials. Work with a chapter in the English text and guidance by the school librarian during library periods filled this need.

The outline for the reports was prepared by means of all-class planning. A series of questions, rather than topics was prepared.

1. Where is the country?
2. What are the chief products of the country?
3. What are the schools like?
4. What is the historical background of the country?
5. What do the people do for sports and recreation?
6. Do the people do any farming?
7. What language do they speak?
8. What do the people do for social life?
9. Where do the people work?
10. What food do they eat and where does it come from?
11. What is the place of the mother in the family?
12. Are the children given any responsibilities in the family?
13. What is their religion?
14. Do they live as we do in the United States?
15. Does the study of family life in ————— help me to understand my own family life better?

While a report might not answer all questions, the pupils felt that everyone should answer the last two.

While studying the library and its use, the pupils learned the make-up of a book; in preparing notebooks on the unit they followed book form. Each notebook had an attractive cover and contained a table of contents, a listing of the goals, a record of the activities the class had held, the report, pictures and maps, vocabulary lists which had been built up weekly from materials used in

study, summaries of the film shown, and a bibliography. The art instructor helped supervise the making of the covers as well as offering suggestions to the committee making the mural.

The resource committee invited another member of the faculty to speak to the class, recounting her experiences traveling in France. Timed as it was before the class oral reporting began and illustrated with post cards and pictures, this talk helped to set the pattern for the students' own reporting.

CULMINATING AND EVALUATING THE UNIT

Before the reports were given orally, the pupils were given other opportunities for oral expression, and methods of reporting were discussed. From this discussion came the following qualifications of a good report:

1. Did the speaker have good posture?
2. Did he talk so that he could be heard?
3. Was his voice pleasant?
4. Did the speaker look at the class when speaking?
5. Was the report interesting?
6. Was it well given?
7. Did the speaker know from where his information came?
8. Did the report arouse good class discussion?

When the reports were given, an evaluation committee graded each report on these eight points. They formed individual opinions about each point and then as a committee evaluated the report as a whole. They had to know why they formed each opinion and had to make suggestions to the individual for improvement. Every pupil had the opportunity to be on the evaluation committee at some time. Since class discussion following the report was part of the evaluation, the entire class was charged with the responsibility of being good listeners.

Other than the evaluation of individual reports, the only evaluation exercise given the pupils was a class discussion taking up each goal in turn and deciding whether or not it had been accomplished.

Since this was the opening unit of the school year, the teacher

had to play an extremely active role in the matter of guidance. Many study habits had to be corrected. The use of the library, use of reference materials, methods of reporting, note taking, and committee functioning, rules for class discussion, and constructive evaluation had to be pointed out to the pupils, and in many cases until the pupils developed an independence in these matters, the teacher had to work right along with them. It is expected that later in the school year, after a unit has been introduced and goals established, the pupils can work independently along the pattern they have set for themselves with this unit.

TEACHING AIDS

The following *films* were shown in connection with this unit:

Children of China, 16 mm, 1 reel, sound, Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Wilmette.

Farmers of India, 16 mm, 1 reel, sound, United World, New York.

Children of Holland, 16 mm, 1 reel, sound, Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Wilmette.

People of Hawaii, 16 mm, 1 reel, sound, Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Wilmette.

French Canadian Children, 16 mm, 1 reel, sound, Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Wilmette.

People of Hawaii, 16 mm, 1 reel, sound, Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Wilmette.

You and Your Family, 16 mm, 1 reel, sound, Association Films, Chicago.

Act Your Age, 16 mm, 2 reels, sound, Coronet Films, Chicago.

How to Study, 16 mm, 1 reel, sound, Coronet Films, Chicago.

The following *books* were listed in the pupil prepared bibliography:

Boulter, Hilda Wilrun, *India*, Holiday House, Inc., New York, 1944.

Compton's Encyclopedia, F. E. Compton & Co., Chicago, 1952.

Davis, Robert, *France*, Holiday House, Inc., New York, 1947.

Encyclopedia Britannica, Jr., University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1950.

Fergusson, Erna, *Let's Read About the Hawaiian Islands*, The Fiderer Company, Grand Rapids, Michigan, 1950.

Ives, Vernon, *Turkey*, Holiday House, Inc., New York, 1945.

Ives, Vernon, *Russia*, Holiday House, Inc., New York, 1943.

Lincoln Library, Frontier Press, Buffalo, N. Y., 1949.

Nano, Frederic C., *The Land and People of Sweden*, J. B. Lippincott, Philadelphia and New York, 1949.

- Nourse & Goetz, *China*, Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1944.
 Solem, E. K., *Encyclopedia Britannica Picture Stories, World's Children Series*, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1947:
 A Day With Dutch Children
 Children on England's Canals
 French Canadian Children
 Pauli and His Hawaiian Feast
 Spencer, Cornelia, *Japan*, Holiday House, Inc., New York, 1948.
 Wood, Mildred Weigley, *Living Together in the Family*, American Home Economics Association, Washington, D. C., 1946.
World Book Encyclopedia, Field Enterprises, Chicago, 1951.

SUMMARY

*Some major generalizations concerning
the illustrative units of work*

1. The schools represented include a range of socioeconomic situations, sizes, facilities, and programs.
2. Each situation provided a large block of time rather than a single period.
3. In each situation all or nearly all of the work was carried out by one teacher, though specialists were brought in to assist at various points.
4. The units of work followed a fairly common pattern. For each there were initiatory, planning, working, and culminating activities.
5. Evaluation was carried on as a continuous cooperative process, with the use of informal as well as formal means of testing.
6. In all of the units, "guidance" and "education" are inseparable.
7. Each teacher made use of many books, rather than a single textbook. Visual aids played a prominent part in the development and culmination of the units.
8. Controversial issues played a prominent role. They were handled as a normal aspect of the life of the classroom.
9. Student participation in every phase of the unit insured that the problems, interests, and needs of the students were given consideration.
10. Resource units were utilized in developing some of the units.

PART IV

PRE-PLANNING FOR LEARNING

CHAPTER XIV

THE RESOURCE UNIT IN CURRICULUM REORGANIZATION

It was pointed out in Chapter IX that the emerging concept of general method calls for an abandonment of the daily-ground-to-be-covered method of organizing classroom activities and the substitution of some form of unit organization. The learning unit was held to be the most promising approach to the reorganization of classroom teaching. Such units have three general characteristics. They consist of (1) a broad comprehensive problem or related problems or projects, (2) a series of related activities to provide common learnings for the group as a whole and individual learnings in terms of the specific problems, needs, and interests of students, and (3) evaluation materials for determining the outcomes of the work in terms of behavior changes in students. In modern practice, as illustrated in the previous chapter, such learning units are planned and carried out cooperatively by the teacher and his group of students. They cannot therefore be thought of as part of pre-planning. *They cannot be developed in advance of teaching.* They are descriptions of what happens when a teacher and a group of students engage in a cooperative learning enterprise. Consequently, learning units should not be regarded as lesson or unit plans.

One reason why high school teachers have, by and large, failed

to work democratically and creatively with groups of students in terms of learning units is that conventional materials such as courses of study and textbooks no longer meet the needs of such situations, and the teacher finds himself without adequate resources. What help does a teacher need to work creatively with students, and can this help be provided without destroying the dynamic quality of individual and group learning experiences?

THE ORIGIN OF THE RESOURCE-UNIT IDEA

A complete history of the plans utilized to answer the questions posed in the previous paragraph is not pertinent to our discussion. It is helpful, however, in gaining a clear idea of the nature of the resource unit, to take note of how it developed. To the National Council of the Teachers of English, according to Klohr ¹ goes the credit for breaking down the rigidity of the English curriculum. Its curriculum commission ² report stated broad principles and gave many illustrations, leaving to the teacher the job of determining curricular materials in terms of the needs of youth. Klohr states that the report "merits a conspicuous place among the influences that contributed to the origins of the resource-unit idea. This role rests upon a single characteristic of the proposed curriculum—its flexibility in terms of teacher participation in selection of curricular materials. Although this might appear to be a slight contribution in view of its marked singularity, its importance when judged against the background of curriculum thinking out of which the proposals originated is highly significant."³

The famous Virginia Curriculum Program which got underway in 1931 also gave impetus to the development of resource materials which would help the teacher to develop learning units. A unit of work was defined as, "a series of related activities engaged in by

¹ Paul R. Klohr, *A Study of the Resource Unit in the Curriculum Reorganization of Selected Secondary Schools*. Unpublished Doctoral Study. Columbus, Ohio, The Ohio State University, 1948.

² *An Experience Curriculum in English*, The Report of a Commission of the National Council of Teachers of English. New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., 1935.

³ Klohr, *op. cit.*, pp. 35-36.

children in the process of realizing a dominating purpose which is compatible with the aim of education.”⁴

In order to help teachers to develop such units of work a course of study was developed cooperatively by many of the teachers of the state. Klohr,⁵ calls attention to the significant fact that this course of study possessed a flexibility hitherto unknown. He supports his point by the following quotation from the bulletin:

This course of study makes the following important provisions: it indicates the direction in which the growth of boys and girls should proceed; it outlines the area of work for each; it gives suggestive raw materials of instruction . . . arranged to facilitate ready reference. The teacher should use them as the editor uses encyclopedias and as the engineer uses manuals and tools. This concept of the course of study *as a source book* developed for the purpose of aiding teachers in planning and executing their work is fundamental to effective use of the material.⁶

In 1938 the Rocky Mountain Workshop, held under the auspices of the Commission on the Relation of School and College of the Progressive Education Association, gave considerable attention to the development of “source” units which were intended for use in the schools represented by the teachers in the core area. They were developed by teachers representing the various subject-matter fields. Some of the titles suggest the nature of the enterprise: Living in the Home; How Man Is Changing His Environment and Adapting Himself to New Conditions; Propaganda; Communication; Use of Leisure Time; Orientation to the New School.⁷

THE NATURE OF THE RESOURCE UNIT

These source units as well as others discussed in this chapter are described fairly well by the following definition of a “resource unit,”

⁴ *Procedures for Virginia State Curriculum Program*. Bulletin of the State Board of Education, Vol. XV, Richmond, State Board of Education, 1932, p. 129.

⁵ *Op. cit.*, pp. 39-40.

⁶ *Tentative Course of Study for the Core Curriculum of Virginia Schools, Grade VIII*. Richmond, State Board of Education, 1934, pp. 37-38. (Italics added).

⁷ These units have not been published, but a complete set (in mimeographed form) is on file in the Education Library of The Ohio State University.

a term which is gradually supplanting the earlier one: A resource unit is a systematic and comprehensive survey, analysis, and organization of the possible resources (e.g., problems, issues, activities, bibliographies) which a teacher might utilize in planning, developing, and evaluating a learning unit

In other words, it is a reservoir out of which the teacher working cooperatively with students may draw helpful suggestions for developing a unit of work in the classroom

This point is made clear by Krug in discussing the use of resource units. He correctly points out

The one use for which resource units are developed is to help teachers prepare for the process of planning learning experiences with their students. They are strictly professional materials designed neither for direct student use nor for direct lay use. This does not imply that they are top-secret stuff to be kept away from anybody but teachers; in fact they may on occasion serve some useful purpose with other groups. But they are designed to serve and help teachers and no resource unit should be evaluated on any other basis.⁸

THE GENERAL ORGANIZATION AND CONTENT OF RESOURCE UNITS

In current practice resource units vary considerably in organization and content. However, the following is fairly common:

1. *Introduction* This section places the unit in its setting and sometimes includes general suggestions for using it.
2. *Philosophy and Objectives* Here the practice varies greatly. Frequently this section includes a statement of the general philosophy and purposes of the school and the objectives of the particular unit.
3. *Scope* This section usually deals with a brief outline of the general problem area covered by the unit, problems, issues, hypotheses, and sometimes a bibliography to aid the teacher in familiarizing himself with the general area.
4. *Suggested Activities* This section consists of organized or unorganized statements of activities which the teacher and student might find useful in carrying out a learning unit in the classroom.

⁸ Edward A. Krug, *Curriculum Planning* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1950), p. 186. Copyright, 1950, by Harper and Brothers.

5. *Bibliography and Teaching Aids.* This section generally lists books, pamphlets, periodicals, free and inexpensive materials, films, film strips, recordings, models, pictures, and maps, which might be helpful to a class in developing a learning unit.
6. *Evaluation.* This important section is designed to provide suggestions for the continuous and final evaluation of a learning unit based upon the general problem area covered by the resource unit.
7. *Leads to Other Units.* This section is usually brief and deals with the possibilities of developing other related resource or learning units.
8. *The Use of the Unit.* Practice varies widely but frequently those who prepare resource units include a section dealing with the various possibilities of using the material in the various phases of developing a learning unit.

ANALYSIS OF CURRENT PRACTICES IN RESOURCE-UNIT CONSTRUCTION

Since 1938 there have been a number of noteworthy attempts to develop resource units in various fields, principally in social studies. In some of them, the line between a resource unit and a learning unit is not sharply drawn, with the result that they provide a definite pattern of teaching. In others, the teacher is left to his own initiative in deciding how he shall use the material of the resource unit. In the following section will be described some of the materials that have been or are being developed.

The National Association of Secondary School Principals, and the National Council for the Social Studies Program. A type of resource-unit organization which possesses certain similarities to the unit plans of Morrison, Thayer, and others, is now being promoted by the above organizations. These units are being developed for use in the social-science area of the senior-high school.

Among the more than thirty titles of the units, which are known as the "Problems in American Life Series," are the following: (1) How Our Government Raises and Spends Money, (2) American Youth Faces the Future, (3) Man and His Machines, (4) Economic Problems of the Post-War World, (5) Public Opinion in War and Peace, (6) International Organization After the War, (7) War: The Causes, Effects, and Control of International Violence.

~~The unit~~ have a two-fold purpose: (1) to provide the teacher with authentic and up-to-date information on a given unit, and (2) to suggest appropriate procedures for teaching and evaluating the unit. *The first purpose is achieved by a carefully prepared statement by an expert in the field, the second, by a suggested plan of teaching prepared by a "master teacher."* It is this second phase that reveals the various steps in the development of the learning unit.

In order to make the plan clear, a brief analysis will be made of one of the better, though earlier units—Man and His Machines.⁹

Part One consists of an analysis of the unit, under the following topics: (1) how machines, like nature, constitute an environment for man, (2) how invention changes groups and modifies social relations, (3) the way in which inventions, creators of new environment, originate, (4) resistance to the adoption of new technological devices, (5) the impact of machines upon society, (6) unusual rates of change and the social lag, and (7) how knowledge of the inventional process may help us in regard to the future. This analysis is a scholarly treatment intended to give the teacher a well-rounded view of the problems, issues, and basic facts of the unit. It has no direct reference to appropriate teaching materials or basic points of view which students might be expected to secure. It would be equally valuable to the layman who wanted to become more intelligent about the problems involved.

The *second* section of the unit is addressed to the teacher. It is intended to provide suggestions for the planning, organization, development, and evaluation of the unit.

The introduction points out the relationship of the machine and the problems that it creates to our democratic culture. In other words, it sets forth the aims of the unit and the way these aims relate to the general purposes of the school in our democratic society.

The significant "understandings" are then presented. These are selected with reference to their value in developing attitudes on the

⁹ Analysis by William Fielding Ogburn, Teaching Aids by Robert B. Weaver. *Problems in American Life Series*, Unit No. 3. Washington, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1942.

part of the pupils. The following are illustrative of the twenty-five basic understandings:

1. "Group life and social interaction are affected directly by inventions and scientific discoveries, and conflicts between attitudes pertaining thereto and social groups frequently result."
2. "There are many reasons for resistance to the adoption of inventions."
3. "The knowledge of what new inventions are to be and what social effects they precipitate gives us some understanding of what future conditions of society will be."
4. "Society has an obligation to direct boys and girls of today toward all sources of information possible about impending changes in the future." ¹⁰

Understandings such as the above are necessary, according to the authors, for the development of the attitudes which are held to be the major purpose of the teaching of the unit.

The following are illustrations of the attitudes that students are expected to gain from the study of the unit.

1. "The individual must accept undesirable features of an industrial society until solutions to social problems can be found."
2. "Inventions of the future should be put to better use than has been the case with earlier and present-day inventions."
3. "Inventors should not become discouraged by resistances to invention."
4. "There should be no attempt to declare a moratorium on inventions." ¹¹

These understandings are not to be taught directly to the student. They are to arise as the student pursues the study of the unit. The students should, however, be helped in arriving at understandings when such help will save time.

The teacher is then helped to see the kind of student behavior that will be indicative of the acquisition of understandings and attitudes. Illustrations of these suggestions are the following: the student (1) "visits industrial plants, and tries to discover the effect of the machine on the workers," (2) "tries to discover how the ma-

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 41.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 42-43.

chine has changed the organization and functioning of our social institutions," (3) "expresses tolerant ideas on controversial subjects," (4) "shows a willingness to accept new or different ideas even though these may cause certain temporary inconveniences," (5) "will not oppose an invention that will benefit a more favored class of people such as a device to increase the speed of high-priced automobiles," (6) "will not drive through stop lights when there is no policeman on duty," and (7) "shows that he has learned to adjust to living conditions that are necessary in a machine age."¹² As the unit progresses, the teacher should study the behavior of students in order to discover the extent to which they are actually learning.

Up to this point, the discussion of the unit has been mainly to aid the reader in understanding the possibilities of the unit in changing student behavior. We now turn to the suggestions for classroom procedures. How shall the unit be initiated? The author suggests that the teacher write a simplified version of the unit and place it in the hands of the student in order that he may "see the story as a whole." Or the teacher may assign readings from available textbooks, which when placed together serve the same purpose as the simplified story. Along with this "story," the students should read a number of discussions of science and inventions. Out of the above initiatory activities, the students are expected, with the assistance of the teacher, to formulate major understandings, problems, hypotheses, and a list of activities in which they may engage in order to gain a comprehensive understanding of the unit and develop the appropriate attitudes. The principles which should determine the selection of suitable activities are stated as follows:

1. Each activity should be constructed so that the preparation will not require more time than is justified by the results gained.
2. Each activity should focus directly upon one of the basic understandings, that is, there should be no "busy work" or "lesson learning" assignments.
3. Each activity should result in understanding and rationalization, not mere memorization for the purpose of later recall.

¹² *Ibid.*, pp. 44-45.

4. The activity need not be difficult to prepare in order to have educative value.
5. Each activity should present some definite problem, the answer to which is really desired by the pupils.
6. Activities of the community-study type should enable the student to apply the understandings he has gained to his local situation.
7. There should be considerable variety in the types of activities that are provided for real diversifications that will make the students more interested in the program.
8. Each activity is a means to an end, not an end in itself.¹³

The following are some of the suggested activities: (1) trip to a factory, (2) study of intricate machines, (3) study of power machinery in the community, (4) reading of articles, (5) floor talks by students who have studied particular aspects of the unit, (6) preparation of pictures and cartoons, (7) panel discussions, (8) class discussion, and (9) interviews.

Following the series of activities which are designed to develop the understandings and attitudes agreed upon as significant, the unit provides for three types of "culminating activities." Each student is expected to organize the material of the unit in terms of a "well-ordered analytical sentence outline of the unit as a whole." Each student prepares a list of statements that reveals his opinions and points of view on the significant aspects of the unit. As a final activity, the teacher shows a number of films that have a bearing on the unit. These are then made the basis of a general class discussion which is intended to reveal the changed attitudes of the students and their ability to apply the understandings gained.

The author recommends that the unit be followed by a testing program which utilizes tests of the following types: (1) information tests, (2) understanding tests, (3) attitude tests, and (4) tests designed to measure intangibles.

This series of units marks a significant departure from the deadly ground-to-be-covered recitation procedure. It has a number of advantages that need to be pointed out. First, it provides the teacher, who is trying to reconstruct his curriculum and procedure, with

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 48.

well-organized content through which he may gain an understanding of the unit. This gives him a needed sense of security. Second, it provides him with a plan for teaching the unit and with adequate teaching aids (bibliographies, films, evaluation devices, etc.), and third, it provides a usable plan to aid him in reorienting his instruction in terms of significant problems of contemporary living.

On the other hand, the proposed plan has certain weaknesses of which the teacher should be aware. First, the unit under discussion is too narrowly conceived. That is, it is restricted to social-science materials whereas a truly comprehensive view of the unit would include materials from other fields as well. For example, the unit is rich in science implications, but materials from that field are used only incidentally. Language and art could also play significant roles. Second, the unit is subject-matter centered, utilizing direct first-hand experience to a limited extent. Third, the basic understandings are determined *in advance*, as are the goals of the instructor. This gives genuine thinking only a secondary place in the process of learning. In other words, the emphasis appears to be upon generalizations to be mastered rather than upon problems to be solved. This opens the door to indoctrination. Fourth, the unit does not provide adequately for individual differences. Fifth, only indirectly does the unit take into account the characteristics of adolescent development. It tends to assume that the material presented is at the maturity level of students and that it meets their interests and needs. Sixth, the unit tends to be more like a learning unit than a resource unit, since it prescribes a definite pattern of development.

In 1949, the National Council for the Social Studies published a resource unit ¹⁴ which departed radically from the series discussed above.

The *Preface* of this unit makes clear its purpose and the way it departs in form from other resource units:

¹⁴ Ryland W. Crary and John T. Robinson, *America's Stake in Human Rights*, Bulletin 24. Copyright, 1949, by The National Council for the Social Studies, Washington. For a unit developed in a somewhat similar form, see: William Van Til, *Democracy Demands It*. A Resource Unit for Intercultural Education in the High School. New York, Harper and Brothers, 1950.

America's Stake in Human Rights deals with a frontier in the area of American civil liberties and civil rights. That frontier of human rights today involves the right to safety and security of the person, the right to citizenship and its privileges, the right to freedom of conscience and expression, the right to equality of opportunity. Minority groups of varied racial, religious, and nationality backgrounds in twentieth century America find these rights which they share with all American citizens too often violated, ignored, flouted. To aid educators in exploring the frontier of human rights, one phase of the American democratic commitment to civil liberties and civil rights, is the function of this resource unit. It does not purport to deal with the total field of civil liberties, nor to replace an earlier NCSS bulletin, *Teaching the Civil Liberties*.

The unit is also a pioneering venture in other respects. It represents an attempted improvement on the pattern of the resource unit in American education. Notably, rather than provide a miscellaneous list of perhaps one hundred and forty-six unrelated activities, *America's Stake in Human Rights* groups highly selected activities according to seven important concepts in human rights education. Usable materials are described in context rather than tacked on at the close, and similarly, statements of philosophy are integral rather than isolated. The unit stays close to the concerns of the potential teacher-user and attempts to serve as a practical guide by successively discussing problems in teaching human rights, how to get human rights into the curriculum, what should be taught, important concepts to be developed, basic materials for teacher analysis of the area and for student use, sources of basic material, and concepts with suggested non-prescriptive activities.¹⁵

The *Introduction* sets forth the issues involved, the need for a better understanding of human rights, the seven important concepts that are to be taught, the understandings of the problems of race, religion, and prejudice which are essential to the development of the seven concepts, and the general sources of information available to the teacher. This section is intended to set the stage for the development of a learning unit.

The next section deals with *Teaching Problems*, under which are included the manner in which the material may be used, the need for studying the students and the community, and some suggestions on teaching methods.

Successive sections deal separately with each of the seven basic

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. v-vi.

concepts which the authors believe should be taught. These concepts are as follows:

1. The tradition of individual liberties has been an expanding idea in American history.
2. Americans have certain rights guaranteed by law.
3. Sometimes law and custom unfortunately establish violations of human rights and principles.
4. Our social environment affects our belief in and concern for civil rights.
5. There are reciprocal values to all people in civil rights principles.
6. America has a moral responsibility for improving civil rights because of its position of world leadership.
7. Effective action can improve the civil rights pattern.¹⁶

Each one of these concepts is developed as a unit, complete with a general exposition of meaning of the concept, suggested activities, and useful references, usually for *each* activity. In order to indicate the specific treatment of each section, the first concept: *Civil Rights: A Growing Tradition*, is presented verbatim:

In 1791 the first ten amendments—The Bill of Rights—were added to the American Constitution, which lacked a full statement of civil rights when established two years earlier.

The constitutional statement of these rights, guaranteeing fundamental freedoms, was epochal. The Bill of Rights was the product of centuries of struggle for recognition of the principles of justice and freedom. It had been wrung from the hard experiences of man. For many centuries, petty tyrants, established churches, and absolute monarchies had enforced forms of authoritarianism by depriving men of their rights of freedom of speech, assembly, religion, and the press. "Star Chamber Courts," where men were tried in secret, accused by unknown persons, and deprived of the right of appeal, had been part of the experience.

The Americans who forged the Constitution and Bill of Rights had learned much from England which had a slow and experimental constitutional development. The English sovereign had once been above the law. But the "Glorious Revolution" of 1688 had deposed a king—without violence and according to orderly constitutional behavior. Law had been recognized as binding even upon a sovereign; the coercive power of the State over the citizen had been limited by legal means.

The people of the colonies had seen arbitrary power exercised ruth-

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 5.

lessly. They had seen tyranny, where Church and State were joined, drive men like Roger Williams into exile; they had experienced the capricious withdrawal of colonial charters; they knew what arbitrary justice could mean. They learned in such places as Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, and Maryland that religious tolerance lends itself to order and domestic tranquillity. They had seen Peter Zenger, a sturdy journalist, fight and win his case for a free press. And, in the Declaration of Independence, they had committed themselves to the great principle that "all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness."

The Bill of Rights was the first great tangible guarantee of human rights of the American nation. The next seventy years saw the conflict between the national ideal of liberty and the institution of slavery. The abolitionist movement was an outgrowth of the humanitarian ferment and democratic idealism of the first half of the nineteenth century. The conflict over the slave issue, the Civil War, brought into being three Constitutional amendments, part of the second great phase in the development and definition of human rights in America.

The Thirteenth Amendment abolished slavery and involuntary servitude. The Fourteenth Amendment granted citizenship to all persons born or naturalized within the United States and denied the states the right of abridging the "privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States." The Fifteenth Amendment states briefly and unequivocally. "The rights of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any state on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude."

Human rights were later extended by developments in three areas—labor, education, and suffrage.

The Industrial Revolution created factories where the individual worker lost much of his identity and individual bargaining power. Workers turned to organization to gain better pay and improved conditions. But old common law principles were sometimes applied to define labor organizations as "conspiracy" and therefore, illegal. Many legal and economic struggles marked the rise of the labor movement. But by the 1930's the legal status of unions was well established and the right of collective bargaining guaranteed by law.

The public school system was also greatly enlarged in this period and became one of the dynamic forces in the practical extension of individual liberty. Universal free public education became, in principle, the instrument of "equality of opportunity." The schools have come to understand their role in making secure the principles of American democracy. Today,

they stand as a bulwark and resource in the continuing struggle for human rights.

The Report of the President's Committee on Civil Rights is, in itself, part of the growing tradition of civil liberties in the United States. The President created the Committee on December 4, 1946, to re-evaluate the state of American civil rights. The Report, published the following year, constitutes a challenge to the political ingenuity and democratic conscience of the American people. While it places emphasis on our country's failures, the Report is essentially constructive. It contrasts weaknesses in our practices with our ideals and recommends a strong program of action to bring the "American Way" closer to the "American Dream." The issues it raises are a direct challenge to:

1. Patterns of social and economic segregation on which so many community cultures are maintained;
2. Attitudes based on racism and special doctrines of supremacy which often dominate political and social behavior;
3. Apathy of good but lazy citizens who would like to think that "all's well with the world" or that "things will just work themselves out if you leave them alone";
4. Prejudices and acquired behavior patterns, present in most citizens, which cause attitudes contrary to American ideals and dangerous to effective democratic citizenship.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. A discussion across the centuries: Let two students represent colonial New England about 1650; two, the new American nation in 1790; two more, the United States just after the Civil War; and two, America of today. Have a discussion comparing the meaning of human rights in the time you represent and noting differences in the terms as you would understand them.
2. Floor talks:
 How Organized Labor Has Extended Human Rights
 How Public Education Has Extended Human Rights
 How the Extension of Suffrage Has Extended Human Rights
 Human Rights in World War II
 Human Rights Today—a Box Score
3. Drama: Present the case of John Peter Zenger; or write an article in the style of your favorite columnist as he might have reported the trial.
4. Show a film: *Democracy*. 16 mm sound. 11 minutes. Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Inc., 20 N. Wacker Drive, Chicago 6, Illinois. *The Story That Couldn't Be Printed*. 16 mm sound. 11 minutes. Teaching

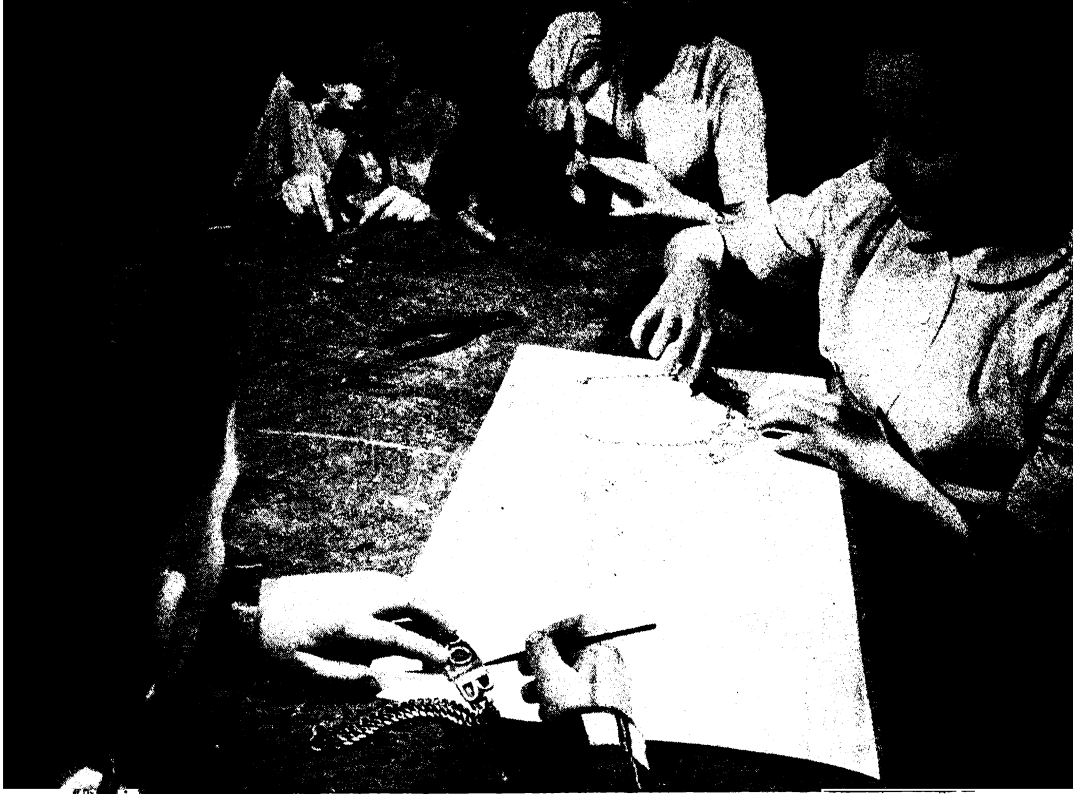


Fig. 11. A Group in a Related Arts Class at the University School at Work Making Jewelry. *Courtesy The Ohio State University School, Columbus, Ohio.*



Fig. 12. The Student Council of the University School Meeting with the Faculty Advisors. *Courtesy The Ohio State University School, Columbus, Ohio.*

Film Custodians, 25 W. 43 Street, New York 17, N. Y. The story of John Peter Zenger's struggle to print the truth.

In using the films in class, follow these four minimal steps:

- a. Be sure to preview the film yourself.
- b. Suggest objectives and significant aspects of the film to the class for observation.
- c. Follow up with discussion for clarification.
- d. Evaluate to determine what the class has learned from the film.
5. Topics for investigation:

Roger Williams, Cecil Calvert, and William Penn: Their Relation to Religious Freedom.

Thomas Jefferson and Human Rights.

Lincoln and Liberty.

Anti-slavery Movements in the North before 1860.

Anti-slavery Movements in the South before 1860.

USEFUL REFERENCES

The Report of the President's Committee on Civil Rights. *To Secure These Rights*. Washington, D. C., U. S. Government Printing Office, 1947. Also, New York, Simon and Schuster, 1948.

Survey Graphic. Special issue. December 1946, "The Right of All the People to Know." 50¢. Especially James T. Shotwell, "The Idea of Human Rights," and Henry Christman, "Nobly Save or Meanly Lose." ¹⁷

The remaining six concepts are treated in similar fashion.

Do teachers need the specificity provided by this unit? Will it interfere with full student participation in classroom planning, by providing a teaching stereotype? In the judgment of the author a more flexible, suggestive type of material is more consistent with the modern concept of method which frees the teacher from the ground-to-be-covered conception.

The series of resource units described above is one of the few that have been published for national distribution. By far the most common practice has been to develop such units at the state, county, or city level for use in particular situations. Usually they are mimeographed and sometimes bound in flexible covers to facilitate revision. Michigan, Virginia, Maryland, and Wisconsin have been the

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 17-21.

most prominent states in this field. At the city level, Denver, Colorado; Long Beach, California; Peoria, Illinois; Minneapolis, Minnesota; Battle Creek, Michigan; and Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, have utilized resource units extensively. At the county level, probably the pioneers are Harford County, Howard County, Garrett County, and Worcester County, all in Maryland.

Resource units are probably more extensively used in Maryland than in any other state. This is due largely to the impetus given the development by the State Department of Education, working in close co-operation with the various county units.

In 1945 the Maryland General Assembly established a twelve-year program to replace the eleven-year program in effect up to that time. This called for examination of the entire curriculum structure of the high school, which had been a five-year program. If the new program was not to be a hodge-podge, a new curriculum structure had to be set up. During the summer of 1945, a workshop was held at Towson under the auspices of the State Department of Education, to consider the problem of building a new program for grades 7 through 12. It was decided to experiment with a core program. This program was to provide the common learnings essential to all youth. A large block of time—two or three hours a day—was to be set aside during which teachers and students would work together to deal with common problems of living. This workshop produced a number of "design" bulletins to assist local schools in developing their programs.

During the summer of 1946 a second workshop was held at Towson for the purpose of developing resource units in the problem areas which had been previously identified as most crucial for general education at the junior-high school level. Key teachers from the various counties of the state came together for a two-week workshop and produced resource units with the following titles:

1. Keeping Physically Fit.
2. Our Shrinking World.
3. Relating Our Land and Our Resources to Our History.
4. Our Physical Environment Shaping Our Lives.
5. Finding Fellowship with Americans North and South.

6. Guarding Against Accident and Disease.
7. Conservation of Our Natural Resources.
8. Discovering Maryland as America in Miniature.
9. Exploring My Educational Opportunities.
10. Learning to Live With Others.

These resource units were developed in terms of a common pattern of organization. Each one consisted of eight sections as follows: (1) A statement of General Philosophy, (2) The Philosophy of the Unit, (3) Major purposes, (4) Scope, (5) Learning Activities, (6) Evaluation, (7) Teaching Materials and Aids, and (8) Suggestions for Using the Unit.

This workshop stimulated county school systems to hold workshops, and to develop resource units more nearly adapted to the particular needs of the county. Sometimes, as was the case in Harford County, units were developed to supplement the state units. In other counties, such as Garrett and Worcester, Workshop groups developed their own resource units in terms of problem areas decided upon by the staff.

The Worcester County Resource Units. One of the most recent programs of resource unit development has been carried out in Worcester County, Maryland. In a series of workshops, beginning in the summer of 1950, the philosophy and objectives of the school were redefined. Eighteen problem areas for the 7th, 8th, and 9th grades were established, and resource units were developed in each of these areas. This project was completed in the summer of 1952.

The detailed treatment of each resource unit is preceded by a very helpful section entitled, "How To Use This Bulletin." This is reproduced here in its entirety because it indicates clearly the organization of the units and the way teachers are expected to use them.

This bulletin is planned for use as a resource unit and curriculum notebook combined.

A quick survey will give you the organization of each unit. Each unit is *introduced* by a statement presenting the setting for the teacher. The introduction attempts to tell what this particular area is all about and how it relates to students. Following the introduction are a series of *Suggested Approaches to the Unit* to children. Next comes a list of *Understandings*.

These understandings point out the various facets of the topic and their implications for youth. Following the understandings is a systematic development of each. Each understanding is rephrased in the form of *Leading Questions*. These questions are not intended to be used for the purpose of quizzing children but are intended as an indication of the scope of the understanding. They are not intended to limit the scope of the understanding but to suggest latitude. The questions are followed by lists of *Activities*. The unit is culminated by a bibliography.

It is strongly suggested that the teacher, in preparing to teach a unit, read it carefully in its entirety to note the scope and breadth of the topic and to note further the phases which may hold special concern for the group of children who will be dealing with it.

The teacher should next notify the librarian of her intention to launch the unit. (This should be done at least two weeks before it is introduced.) The librarian will then begin to collect all available materials relating to this topic, drawing upon the resources of the library and the Division of Library Extension of the State Department of Education. As soon as this material is furnished to the teacher, she must acquaint herself with it and note the content and readability for the pupils of various reading levels. (Remember that all formal classroom groups have a grade span of reading ability of at least five grades and perhaps as many as seven grades.)

Remember also that children are interested only in that about which they know something. Some carefully selected information about a topic will give the class the necessary knowledge which will release energy, enthusiasm, an inquiring spirit, and a desire to know more. Remember that the ability to concentrate comes only from the inward desire to learn and that learning is an exciting and exhilarating experience.

Next make an inventory of what you know about your class:

What is each child's strength?

What is each child's ability?

What is each child's social and cultural background?

What are each child's resources? (Books, newspapers, magazines, radio, television, travel experiences, encyclopedia, room or place for study, work experiences, co-operation and interested parents, etc.)

What are each child's developmental tasks? What are his major concerns?

What skills can he use with some help and guidance?

What are the skills about which he should be developing concepts?

What skills can be group enterprises because they are needed by most members of the class?

What skills must be developed in individuals?

What is the sociometric structure of the group?

Now make a tentative choice of activities for a beginning and choose an approach which will relate this area to the pupils' concerns and already

acquired knowledge. (There should be no attempt made to deal with the understandings in the order in which they are listed. Neither should activities be selected according to the order in which they are listed.) It is quite possible and logical that the class group could be working on activities related to several or all the understandings simultaneously and that, through *sharing activities*, concepts, and information about several of the understandings will be gained.¹⁸

These general instructions for using the bulletins are followed by the listing of the resource units at each grade level. This statement gives in brief compass the general scope and sequence of the program.

The prefatory statement and the titles of the resource units follow:

The Junior High School Program

This is one of six bulletins for grades seven, eight and nine. Six areas have been selected for each grade level. While perhaps six areas could not be covered by each teacher, it is important that the program of these grade levels assume some balance. Therefore it is strongly recommended that, in preliminary planning, time be allotted for the program of each grade level as is indicated below (The sequence in which these units are listed is of no significance.)

Grade 7

Living in Our School (no longer than 3 or 4 weeks)

Leisure Time

Health and Safety

Our Natural Surroundings

And a Choice Between the Following:

People of Other Countries—North and South

Our Shrinking World

Grade 8

Understanding Myself

Conservation

Keeping Up with Current Affairs

Maryland, The Old Line State

And a Choice Between the Following:

Living in Our Community

People of the United States

¹⁸ The above is included in each of the resource units, pp. vi, vii. (*Italics in original.*)

Grade 9

Making a Living

Getting Along with Others

Acquiring Goods and Services

America's Heritage

And a Choice Between the Following:

People of Other Countries—East and West

Community Health and Safety.¹⁹

One of these units, *Getting Along With Others*²⁰ will be described briefly with sufficient illustrations to give the reader an understanding of the organization and general content.

Introduction: This brief section explains why the problem of getting along with others is important.

Suggested Approaches to the Unit: Here the teacher is given the following suggestions for initiating a learning unit.

1. Organize a club for the class.
2. Plan an assembly program.
3. Plan a dinner and an evening party for the class in the school.
4. Plan an exchange of home visits for students in country and town.
5. Plan a trip or tour of the important places in the county, e.g. visit to shirt factory, visit to chicken plant, visit to Adkins Lumber Mill, visit to telephone office.
6. Plan a progressive dinner and party.

Understandings

1. To learn to live with ourselves.
2. To understand how to get along with peers (boy-girl relationships.)
3. To establish better relationships with our families.
4. To improve relationships with adults.
5. To learn common courtesy, and the etiquette of social relationships.²¹

These understandings form the framework of the unit. Each one is taken up in turn, and leading questions, suggested activities,

¹⁹ The above is included as prefatory material in each of the units. p. viii.

²⁰ Snow Hill, Maryland, The Board of Education of Worcester County, 1952.
Note: All of the units are developed similarly with the same general format.

²¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 2-5, *passim*.

bibliographies, films, etc., are included. For example, under the first understanding—"To learn to live with ourselves," the following are typical *Leading Questions*: "In what ways are you pleased with yourself?" "What qualities have you observed in others that you wish you had?" In the next section—*Suggested Activities*, the following is the last of ten suggestions:

Construct co-operatively a rating scale which lists 10 or 12 units, such as, consideration for others, facial expression, poise, etc. List interpretation of each of these from one extreme to the other. Give each interpretation a value. Have everyone rate himself and have everyone rate someone else. Pool the values to see if there are differences. (Avoid making this a popularity contest or a matter of dealing with individuals in the class. Keep project on a level of comparing total values within the class.)²²

For most of the activities, helpful bibliographies and audio-visual aids are suggested. Examples:

NON-FICTION: John B. Geisel, *Personal Problems*, Rev. Ed. Boston, Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1949; William Menninger and Munroe Leaf, *You and Psychiatry*. New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1948.

FICTION: Dorothy Canfield, *Understood Betsy*. New York, Henry Holt and Company.

FILMS: *Shy Guy*, (Sd), Chicago, Coronet Instructional Films.

SLIDES. *Manners*. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company.

TESTS: *Are You in the Know?* Chicago, International Cellucotton Products Co.

FREE AND INEXPENSIVE MATERIALS: *Junior Inventory*, Form A. Chicago, Science Research Association; M. B. Stephenson, and R. L. Mittel, *Test on Manners for Juniors* New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company.

The resource units are attractively bound in looseleaf form. After each section are blank pages for notes by the teacher which might be useful in revising the unit on the basis of experience in using it.

The Worcester County program of resource unit development represents something of a departure from current practices, in that (1) the scope is defined in terms of *understandings* to be achieved, (2) activities and teaching materials are developed separately for

²² *Ibid.*, p. 11.

each understanding, and (3) there are few, if any suggestions, for evaluation. Experience in use will show whether the very specific nature of these units leads to an undesirable teaching stereotype or provides the security which teachers need in experimenting with new procedures.

OTHER PLANS FOR PROVIDING RESOURCE MATERIALS

The resource unit as described in this chapter is intended as a procedure for curriculum reorganization which will help the teacher in planning and organizing appropriate learning units for the classroom. Obviously there are other ways of accomplishing this same purpose. Two of them which are closely related to resource-unit development are worthy of note.

The Materials Bureau. The Parker District,²³ and Greenville, South Carolina, schools have pioneered the development of the materials bureau as a means of providing resources which the teacher may use in planning for classroom activities. In the Parker District, the bureau is housed in a large room supervised by a trained librarian and a clerical assistant. For each of the "centers of interest" or units which the school utilizes, the librarian has assembled mounted pictures, pamphlets and bulletins, wall posters and charts, stereographs, slides and recordings, and any other material which a teacher may find helpful in planning a unit of work. The librarian keeps the material up-to-date and assists the teacher in finding what is needed. A bureau of the type described is not necessarily a substitute for the development of resource units. As a matter of fact, it would be a valuable supplement to such a program.

The Resource File. The Ohio State University School is experimenting with the resource file as an aid to teachers in developing units of work in the core curriculum. As units are developed in a given problem area, a file is built up in the library. In this file are included materials under such headings as (1) Aims and Purposes,

²³ See James Tippet, *et al.*, *Schools for a Growing Democracy*. Boston, Ginn and Company, 1936; Elizabeth Solters, *The Materials Bureau*, Greenville (S. C.), The Parker District School, 1941.

(2) The Scope of the Problem Area, (3) Suggested Student Activities, (4) Suggestions for Evaluation, and (5) Bibliography and Teaching Aids.

The flexible character of this plan makes it possible to keep the file up-to-date. The central location of the file makes it easily available to all teachers.

SUMMARY

In this chapter it has been possible to touch only briefly on the trend toward the development of resource units. As has been indicated, there is a wide variation in form and content among the units that have been developed. However, it seems possible to generalize to some extent upon the basis of current practice.

1. The resource unit has evolved as the result of curriculum-revision plans that break rather sharply with conventional curriculums and methods.
2. The resource unit is designed to provide a guide for the teacher without prescribing exact content and procedures.
3. The resource unit is built upon the assumption that teachers and students ought to plan co-operatively for the development and evaluation of learning units.
4. Most resource units avoid the imposition of a pattern of procedure upon the teacher.
5. Most resource units provide for individual differences among students, not only in rates of learning, but also in interests, attitudes, and particular needs.
6. One danger in the use of the resource unit is that it may become a stereotyped pattern which is as deadly as the fixed daily assignments from the textbook.
7. Another danger in the use of resource units is that they may provide a neat scheme for indoctrinating the student (and possibly the teacher) in certain preconceived attitudes.
8. Materials bureaus, and resource files are being used in some schools to help to meet the need of the teachers for aid in planning units of work.²⁴

²⁴ For further reading, see bibliography at the close of the following chapter.

CHAPTER XV

DEVELOPING RESOURCE UNITS— CRITERIA AND ILLUSTRATIVE PRACTICES

It was pointed out in the previous chapter that there are many divergent practices in resource-unit construction. Upon the basis of these practices, however, it is possible to classify the content of most resource units into these categories: (1) Introduction, (2) Philosophy and Objectives, (3) Scope, (4) Suggested Activities, (5) Bibliography and Teaching Aids, (6) Evaluation, (7) Leads to Other Units, and (8) The Use of the Unit.

This chapter is designed to develop basic criteria involved in each of the above categories and to provide illustrations from current practices. The purpose of doing this is three-fold: (1) to clarify the nature and function of the resource unit, (2) to provide some guiding criteria which would be of assistance to curriculum-development groups, and (3) to illustrate each section by different practices so that "hunches" may be provided as to different ways of treating a given section. This procedure of utilizing segments of a number of resource units, instead of *one* fully developed, is adopted with the conviction that a wealth of different practices is more helpful than the presentation of *one* unit, however good it might be. The interested reader will have no difficulty in finding many complete units for examination.

SOME GENERAL CRITERIA FOR RESOURCE-UNIT CONSTRUCTION

1. *The resource unit should prove to be valuable in all situations involving flexibility of content and teaching-learning procedures.* Resource units have probably been most widely used in core-program development. This is due to the fact that such programs call for new organizations of material which draw freely from many subject fields. The textbook in such cases becomes wholly inadequate. Rigid schemes of scope and sequence give way to a flexible approach which calls for the marshaling of a wide variety of resources upon short notice, in response to classroom decisions arrived at cooperatively.

It must be emphasized, however, that the core program has no monopoly on the problems approach, student participation in planning, or any other psychologically sound teaching procedure. Therefore it follows that the development of resource units is entirely appropriate in any learning situation in which the teacher has broken the bonds of tradition. They have been used widely in the social-studies area. The program of the National Council of the Social Studies and the National Association of Secondary-School Principals described in the previous chapter is evidence of interest in this field. A resource unit on *Money and Credit*¹ is one of several developed by the Philadelphia Economics Seminar. Others completed or in process are *Taxation and Fiscal Policy*, *The Role of Small Business in Our Economy*, *Social Security*, *Labor-Management Relations*, *World Trade and Point 4 Program*, and *The Advance of Technology*.² A good illustration of the use of resource units in Industrial Arts is provided by a recent bulletin published by the State Department of Public Instruction in Wisconsin.³ Other areas such as Science, Physical Education, Mathematics, Home Eco-

¹ Philadelphia, Curriculum Office, Philadelphia Public Schools, 1951.

² *Ibid.*, p. iii

³ *Resource Units for Industrial Arts in Wisconsin Schools*, Curriculum Bull. 19, Industrial Arts Bull. 2. Madison, State Department of Public Instruction, 1951.

nomics have made rather extensive use of the resource-unit technique.

In spite of the above illustrations, it must be said that such units are far from being in general use. There is undoubtedly a connection between the fact that 93.5 per cent of the more than 24,000 high schools of the United States still follow a subject-centered program and the relatively few schools which have developed resource units.

2. Resource units are best developed by a group of teachers rather than by one teacher. This criterion does not mean merely that a number of people can produce a better product than one person can. It has been pointed out repeatedly that one justification for the use of the resource unit technique is that it provides a means of escape from the traditional ground-to-be-covered, lesson-to-be-learned conception of teaching, by breaking down the compartmentalized conception of subject matter. It follows then that the personnel of the staff most likely to understand the contributions which a field might make to a given problem area would produce, a richer, more meaningful resource unit than would any one teacher, however broadly trained that teacher might be. This may be illustrated by an example taken from a cooperative project in which a number of specialists working together in a seminar under the direction of the author sought to discover the contributions which their respective fields might make to a unit on *Problems of Self-Understanding*. All agreed that the following activity might be carried out profitably by a class in a core program:

Prepare lists of clothes that pupils have bought recently or will buy soon. Consider problems involved in buying clothes (color, style, use, fit) and present a style show after visiting local merchants, making purchases, and getting ideas on what to present in the show.⁴

Following this agreement, each specialist was asked to state briefly what his area might contribute to such an activity. The con-

⁴ Harold Alberty and others, *Utilizing Subject Fields in High-School Core-Program Development* (mimeo.). Columbus, Ohio State University Press, 1950, p. 30.

clusions of each specialist were presented to the group for criticism. The group finally agreed upon the following:

AGRICULTURE:

1. The length of wear that may be expected of cotton goods and woolen goods for everyday use.
2. The warmth of cotton and woolen materials for use about the farm.

ARTS:

1. The effect of color, style, etc., on various personal characteristics.
2. Relationships of style, price, value, etc.
3. Display and selling possibilities involved in a style show.
4. All aspects of consumer buying.

BUSINESS EDUCATION:

Study of what a boy and girl should look for in clothing purchases during the year, in order to utilize economically the money budgeted for clothing. e.g., comparison of prices and qualities of materials.

DISTRIBUTIVE EDUCATION:

1. Trends in men's, women's, and young people's clothing: e.g., study color, design, and combination of clothes for various occasions; get ideas and suggestions for preparing a wardrobe developing a style show sponsored by local stores; develop a style show sponsored by local stores; make the contacts with the fashion experts, buyers, or other appropriate persons in the store.

HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION:

Appropriate sportswear for different activities and its cost.

HOME ECONOMICS:

1. Buying clothes wisely: e.g., set up criteria for judging wardrobe, evaluate own wardrobe in light of criteria (include color combination, design, style, materials, construction, etc.), make plan for improving wardrobe (expert in clothing may be consulted, films may be used); examine government and commercial guides to consumer buying, evaluate in terms of use.
2. Selecting clothes wisely: e.g., examine and evaluate suggested wardrobes found in magazines; set up criteria for judging the suitability of the garment to the wearer; evaluate old purchases in light of these; plan for improving own selections.

MATHEMATICS:

1. The concept of significant figures as related to a budget: e.g., one-cent more on a ten-cent purchase is equivalent to one-dollar more on a ten-dollar purchase.

SCIENCE:

1. Study of source and chemical nature of natural synthetic fibers.
2. Relation of different kinds of cloth and methods of weaving.
3. Chemical tests for cloth.

SOCIAL STUDIES:

Student consideration of buying clothing as it relates to family income and expenditures: e.g., consider this statement by a twelve-year-old in a family budget meeting. "The one thing this family needs most is a new permanent for mother. My new sport clothes can come later."⁵

While there is undoubtedly room for disagreement upon the appropriateness of some or all of these contributions, there will probably be general agreement upon the proposition that no one teacher would have been sensitive to many of the contributions suggested. Even where resource units are developed *within* a given subject field, teachers representing different fields of specialization can offer suggestions for enrichment.

It is fairly common practice in schools that have carried on workshops in resource-unit development to work in teams of five or six teachers representing the major fields of knowledge. Even interested laymen and students may be brought into such groups.

This is not to claim that *one* teacher may not improve his program by developing resource units. Many excellent units have been so developed.⁶

3. *Resource Units are likely to be most effective when they are used by the group that prepares them.* Some resource units have been prepared on a national scale by experts. The *Problems in American Life* Series, prepared by the National Council for the Social Studies and the National Association of Secondary-School

⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 30-31.

⁶ See, for example, Myrtle Toops, *Problems of Growing Up*. Muncie (Ind.), The Child Development Service, Ball State Teachers College, 1948.

Principals, is an example. Such units are of value and their development should be encouraged. It is true, nevertheless, that the teachers who participate directly or indirectly in the development of resource units tend to use them more extensively and effectively. Klohr points out this fact in his doctoral study of the resource unit. Among his conclusions is the following statement:

Five factors tend to contribute to the effectiveness with which resource units are used in the selected schools: (1) The organization and content of the units, (2) participation of the teachers who are using them, in their development, (3) in-service education in their use, (4) administrative encouragement, and (5) skilled supervision.⁷

Such a conclusion is to be expected. Sharing in an enterprise tends to bring about identification with it. Many "good" resource units collect dust on the teacher's desk because of the absence of one or all of the last four factors listed.

4. The resource unit should be organized and indexed for effective use and published in a form that facilitates frequent and easy revision. This criterion needs little support. Many criticisms have been made by teachers that resource units are difficult to use. They claim, with justification, that the mere assembling of large masses of activities or reference materials is not enough. The materials should be classified in such a way that they are easy to find and use. On the other hand, it is undesirable to provide the teacher with a ready-made scope and sequence which may serve as a substitute for cooperative planning with students.

If resource units are to be valuable they must be kept up-to-date and modified in the light of the experience of teachers using them. For this reason, it is desirable to publish them in looseleaf form or to leave blank pages at the end of each section for suggested revisions.

5. A program of resource-unit development requires that ample provisions be made for physical facilities, released time for participants, secretarial and consultant service, and the like. Preparing resource units requires a great deal of time and energy and should

⁷ Klohr, *op. cit.*, p. 311. (Italics added by the author)

not be relegated to after-school hours. It should be regarded as a necessary and valuable part of the teaching load. Some schools have solved this problem through summer workshops during periods in which teachers are paid their regular salaries. This practice should be encouraged. Sufficient budget should be provided for various types of services. Needless to state, a high quality of leadership is required and should be provided.

THE ORGANIZATION AND CONTENT OF RESOURCE UNITS—CRITERIA AND ILLUSTRATIONS

The preceding section dealt with some overall considerations in resource-unit development. We now turn to the organization and content. In so doing, criteria will be stated and explained. A variety of illustrations from resource materials will be presented.

A. Philosophy and Purposes.

1. *The general philosophy and purposes of the school in which the resource unit is to be used should be well understood by those who prepare the unit, and in most cases should be stated in the unit.* The philosophy upon which the resource unit is built should be consistent with the philosophy of the school in those situations wherein a basic philosophy has been worked out and is well known to those who are making or using the resource unit. All of the learning activities afforded by the unit should reflect this basic philosophy. If the units are to be widely distributed, it is well to include this statement in the resource unit. In situations in which such a philosophy has not been developed, the resource unit should contain a statement of the underlying philosophy of those who prepared it. This should represent the highest level of agreement which the group can reach upon basic educational issues.

Since our schools, like those of any other society, reflect the basic ideals of the culture, the philosophy which gives direction to the school program should be based upon democratic ideals and values and their implications for the educational program. A convenient way of organizing the formulation of an educational philosophy might be to use the following categories: (1) the nature of our

cultural ideals, (2) the nature of the individual, (3) the nature of learning, and (4) the purposes of the school in the light of the foregoing. The four schools of thought⁸ which have influenced widely educational practices and procedures are the *Humanists*, led by Hutchins, Adler, Van Doren, and others; the *Social Evolutionists*, of which Morrison and Judd are representatives; the *Social Realists*, who follow the lead of Briggs; and the *Pragmatists*, or *Experimentalists*, led by Dewey, Thayer, and Bode. Though these schools differ widely, they all claim to be within the framework of a democratic society. Hence, their concepts should be examined carefully by groups preparing resource units or by schools that are re-examining their philosophies.

The question which might well be raised is: What purposes are we striving to attain in our educational program? If the school is to function effectively and the resource unit to be of the utmost value, a general policy must be adopted with reference to such issues facing secondary education as the following:

1. Shall secondary education be made available for all youth or for a selected few, i.e., shall a high school adopt a curriculum which will meet the needs of all youths or just offer a classical course for those able to master it?
2. Shall secondary education be oriented in terms of the existing social order or shall it work for a refinement of the culture? i.e., shall we educate for the *status quo* or for progress toward democratic American ideals?
3. Shall secondary schools indoctrinate for democracy or educate the student to make his own choice? i.e., shall we train for blind following of cultural patterns or for the use of the scientific method in all phases of democratic life?
4. Shall the curriculum be interpreted as including only the organized subjects or as embracing all the learning activities sponsored by the schools? i.e., shall the school be evaluated as an American democratic institution only in terms of formal subjects or shall all activities sponsored by the school be considered as contributing to the development of citizens of a democracy?

⁸ This classification was first proposed by Joseph Justman, *Theories of Secondary Education in the United States*. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942.

5. Shall the curriculum be based upon the immediate needs, problems, and interests of adolescents or upon the needs of adult life, i.e., shall the curriculum be based upon the *individualized* needs of youth or upon the *verbalized* needs of adult pressure groups?

These issues are only a few of those which offer to the school challenges which must be met through the practices, procedures, and the learning situations which it sponsors.⁹

The following rather elaborate statement of basic philosophy was developed as the guiding principle of a resource unit dealing with Problems of Living in the Air Age. It was developed by a group of graduate students at the Ohio State University under the direction of the author. It was not developed in or for a particular school. Rather it expresses the general philosophy held by the group that prepared it. It is reproduced here to illustrate a possible way of dealing with philosophy and purposes in a resource unit.

THE PHILOSOPHY AND PURPOSES UNDERLYING A RESOURCE UNIT ON PROBLEMS OF LIVING IN THE AIR AGE⁹

The resolution of conflicts in a democratic society is only possible if we have a clear understanding of the meaning of democracy as a way of life. This means that democracy is given a much broader interpretation than when defined to mean only a form of government or of social organization. It becomes primarily a set of values which give direction to social living. The following ideals are held to be basic to democracy.

RESPECT FOR INDIVIDUALITY. Democracy, as here interpreted, holds that all individuals are unique and entitled to respect, and consequently provides for the optimal development of all in the different aspects of living: intellectual, moral, social, emotional, physical, cultural, vocational, and aesthetic.

COOPERATIVE LIVING. The optimal development of the individual cannot take place in isolation; consequently democracy recognizes the interdependence of individuals and holds that its organization should be such that it will further the good of all individuals. In this connection it recog-

⁹ See Chapter XVI for a more complete discussion of the problem of building a philosophy of education in a school. The references at the close of that chapter should be helpful to a group that is working on the development of a resource unit.

nizes that men possess increased opportunities for abundant living because of their working with other men and because of the work of other men. Thus, it promotes continuous extension of cooperation, common interests, and purposes among individuals. It recognizes, also, that the privileges afforded to some men may lead to the lack of opportunity for others and thus believes that the privileges of one must be restricted when they interfere with the opportunities of another.

THE METHOD OF INTELLIGENCE. Democracy holds further that the optimal development of the individual can take place only when intelligence becomes the guide for behavior. It believes that the individual, through the use of his intelligence, can arrive at an adequate guide for his behavior. It believes that the truths which serve as guides for man's progress are ever changing and are derived from man's intelligent use of his experience; that they are not fixed and eternal and imposed from without. This has been defined as the method of intelligence and is considered the appropriate method for the meeting of all conflicts and the solving of all problems.

What then should the American school try to do to further this democracy in our country? It must recognize, of course, that it is just one of the social institutions within the larger community and that consequently it should utilize the community as a laboratory for the study of problems affecting the total community and should cooperate with other agencies in carrying out programs of community improvement. But it must, also, recognize that it has a unique place in American society and it should:

1. *Make itself a democratic place in which students and teaching staff live together with due respect and consideration for all members of the group.* The schools provide an environment for students and teachers in which all may participate in the procedures of democratic living. Opportunities for wholesome growth in lifelike situations, in healthful and pleasant surroundings, are most important to the optimal development of all. Teachers and students, in group activities, will share responsibilities and will work together cooperatively in planning and solving problems.

2. *Make provision for the clarification of the meaning of democracy on the part of all students.* If democratic values are to serve as a basis for the choice of activities which make up living, these values must be understood. It is, therefore, the responsibility of the school to provide opportunities for their examination and clarification. This does not mean, however, that this will be done apart from activities in living. The school should help the student to understand the democratic values involved in all the activities in which he engages.

3. *Encourage and respect the expression of beliefs and opinions on the part of all its students.* This means that students will be made to feel free to express their opinions even though they may not be in agreement with the teachers' views or those of their classmates. They will recognize that their beliefs and opinions will be given the same consideration that is given to the beliefs and opinions of others.

4. *Help students to clarify and perhaps reconstruct their beliefs and values* This means that the school should encourage the discussion of all controversial issues that affect students. It means that students should examine the beliefs they hold in regard to these issues on two scores: (1) What are they based upon? Are they based on superstition, on lack of information, on the authority of someone else, on facts? What is their basis? and (2) To what consequences will they lead? If the student acts upon a certain belief, what will be the consequences of his behavior? When beliefs and values are subjected to such a test, the student will then have some basis for understanding his belief. He may adhere more strongly to it. He may decide to abandon it. At any rate, he will be able to give a more adequate reason for holding such a belief and he will have a better guide to behavior.

5. *Provide experiences for group thinking on common problems in order to help students understand that individual concerns and social concerns are interdependent.* The total societal pattern in any culture is composed of institutions contingent upon one another. Any change in one of these institutions in turn affects the larger societal structure. Experiences in a school that is operating on a democratic basis should provide group activities that will aid in the clarification of the societal structure and its institutions. Such experiences will present freedom from individual expression, but at the same time will call for an examination by each person of the effect of his individual behavior and activities on others. This expressed consideration of others and constant examination of one's acts in the light of the further consequences to which they lead will in turn imply change in the institutions in society and finally in the culture itself.

6. *Provide for the development of the whole individual.* The school recognizes that the intellectual, emotional, and physical aspects of personality are interrelated and that one cannot be separated from another. It should therefore provide experiences which emphasize the individual and his all-round development as a person rather than upon his intellectual training alone. This would mean that in all learning situations provision must be made for growth in each of these aspects—physical, emotional, and intellectual.

7. *Base its curriculum upon the problems, needs and interests of*

youth.¹⁰ Education is a continuous process of growth of individuals through self-activity in relation to others and occurs in each person as a result of his total experiences. All school situations should be expressed in terms of the purposeful activities of all, and these should be stimulated and directed according to the student's real problems, interests, needs, and capacities. Opportunities should be given to all so that they may purpose, plan, execute, and judge, each according to his many life needs and interests that, in turn, will be related to the needs and interests of the large group.

8 *Help the student to learn to use the method of intelligence as a guide to his behavior.* This implies that the curriculum of the school will need to be based on activities which are of concern to young people, for thinking takes place when people are faced with problems which they need to solve and which they are interested in solving.

Students will be encouraged to question their own beliefs, the assumptions which they often accept as facts, or the expressed beliefs of other people. Only in this manner will they learn to distinguish between fact and assumption.

Students will be taught to recognize the problems which face them, to arrive at fruitful hypotheses for solving these problems, to gather evidence which relates to them, to judge this evidence in terms of its usefulness in solving the problems, and to use it to reach conclusions that can be supported by facts.

The school will provide many and varied opportunities for students to do reflective thinking.

A much simpler and perhaps more easily understood formulation of general school philosophy is utilized by Worcester County, Maryland.¹¹ The two statements are reproduced in the preface of each of the eighteen resource units developed.

STATEMENT OF PHILOSOPHY

We Believe

We, as teachers, should provide each of our boys and girls with the experiences he needs to make him a good citizen, a good worker, and a good family member.

We should accept him as he is and do what we can for him.

¹⁰ In developing this unit, the group made use of the general framework of "trends in adolescent development" which is set forth in Chapter IV.

¹¹ See pp. 437-42 for a description of the unit: *Getting Along With Others*.

We should consider him as an individual with his own methods and rate of learning and should guide him through experiences which he feels are interesting and worthwhile. He and his parents should help in planning these experiences.

We should teach him in the light of all that is known about how boys and girls grow and develop.

We should be concerned about *all* of the experiences he has, not merely with what he does in our classroom.

We should see that he has a wide variety of real experiences. All of his experiences should be as real and life-like as possible.

We should do all that we can to insure his growth and success and steady progress through school.

We should measure the success of our teaching in terms of what he does, in school and out, rather than in terms of what he writes on a test paper.

We should hold him up to standards—standards set in accordance with his own maturity and needs.

We should provide him with the experiences every boy and girl needs and also give him ample opportunity to develop his own special interests and abilities.

We should be concerned about his present problems as well as his, future problems.

We should plan and organize his experiences around common problems of living.

We Also Believe

Each boy and girl needs:

The ability to read, write, listen, speak, and compute effectively in normal every-day situations.

Sound ethical and moral principles.

Wholesome recreational interests.

Supervised work experience.

Ability to purchase and use goods and services wisely.

Sound health habits—physical, mental, and emotional.

Ability to plan, work, and solve problems with others.

Respect for his fellow-men.

Sound work habits.

Ability to think critically.

Ability to fulfill the responsibilities of citizenship.

Awareness of the importance of conserving human and natural resources.

Respect for wholesome family living.

Ability to work for world peace.

Appreciation of beauty in literature, art, music, and nature.
Respect for science and the potentiality of science.
Understanding of himself.¹²

2. The objectives of the resource unit, or its possible contributions to the general purposes of the school, should serve as a guide to the development of the unit and therefore should be explicitly set forth. Practices vary widely with respect to this criterion. Some of the statements are very general in character, some almost atomistic. Sometimes they are stated as specific skills and understandings to be developed.

The following illustration is taken from a resource unit entitled *Science—Servant or Master*, which was prepared by a group of graduate students under the direction of the author. The statement of “major purposes” is preceded by one dealing with the philosophy and purposes of the school.

- 1. To help the student to understand the meaning and significance of the scientific method in solving problems of human concern.*

The impact of the scientific method in changing our ways of thinking and living is well known among scientists, but the student needs to be oriented to the problem particularly as the method has application to areas that extend beyond the field of technology. For example, the application of scientific method to the problem of delinquency.

- 2. To develop in the student an appreciation of the scientific attitude, and an ability and desire to use the scientific method in its generalized form (i.e., reflective thinking) in solving his problems.*

The future of democracy depends upon the extent to which the citizen maintains an open-minded attitude toward problems of improving human relationship; and the extent to which he develops the habit of using reflective thinking in solving the problems which beset him. For example, the good citizen maintains an open-minded attitude toward political parties, and decides his vote only after a reflective consideration of the important issues, instead of acting upon the basis of tradition or impulse.

- 3. To help the student to understand the problems which have arisen in all areas of living because of the growth of technology, e.g., health, social-economic life, morals and ethics, and on his own level to help solve these problems.*

We are apt to take for granted the fact that we live in a technological

¹² *Ibid.*, pp. iv-v.

society, and to accept changes as normal. We fail to take into account, however, the fact that technology creates problems of unemployment, that new discoveries in the field of science clash with existing beliefs about morals and religion, and that as a consequence there is need for a continuous reinterpretation of beliefs, and for adjustment to changed social and economic conditions.

4. *To help the student to realize the dangers both of utilizing the fruits of scientific achievement for destructive ends and the possibilities of utilizing them for the advancement of human living*

It is sometimes forgotten that technological advance has made possible total destruction of humanity. If those who *control* science and invention are not motivated by ideals of human development, man's advance toward a higher type of civilization may be permanently checked. On the other hand, the "American Dream" of an economy of abundance is now capable of realization, if we learn to use science for promotion of human welfare.

5. *To help the student to develop consistent attitudes toward the problem of applying science to living.*

Men differ widely in their beliefs concerning the application of science to certain areas of living. Some claim it has no applicability to problems in the moral or religious field. Others hold to the opposite point of view. It is not the function of the school to impose a given set of beliefs, but rather to help the student to develop a unified consistent outlook on his world. This it should do through full and free discussion of all significant issues that are within the maturity level of the student and of interest to him.

6. *To help the student to see the connection between the method of science and the method of democracy*

Democracy as a way of life gives a very important place to the intelligence of the common man. It holds that citizens can be taught to solve their problems by using the method of science. Scientific knowledge grows by the application of the scientific method to new problems in a given field. Democracy grows by applying the same method to the progressive refinement of its ideals, institutions, and practices. Thus science and democracy bear a close relationship.

A considerably more specific formulation of objectives is found in a resource unit on family living.¹³ After stating the philosophy of education held by the group, the objectives of the resource unit are set forth as follows:

¹³ Lucile L. Lurry and Others. *Problems of Family Living*. Tallahassee, Florida, State Department of Education, 1951 (Mimeographed).

The purpose of a democratic school comes from the values which give direction to everything that it does. These include optimal development of all individuals, recognizing the value of cooperative process in solution of problems, and since we believe that each individual has competency to think and solve problems, we would use reflective thinking.

Within the scope of this resource unit our basic goal is to strengthen home and family life in a democratic society. We need to develop wholesome attitudes toward critical issues of home and family living. Since these issues cannot be handled as questions which can be answered with facts and information only, we must develop consistent and non-conflicting attitudes, ever widening interests and appreciations, and a certain amount of skill in relation to the following:

1. The responsibility of citizenship as a member of the family and community.
2. The characteristics of a democratic home in terms of the behavior of the individual.
3. The sharing and maintenance aspect of family living.
4. The use of family council or some other cooperative process in solving conflicts.
5. How the house may become a home.
6. A consistent set of values to guide life through family living.
7. The problem of eugenics, courtship and marriage.
8. The having and guiding of children
9. The individual as a member of a family group.
10. The wise use of resources such as: money, time and energy.
11. The effect of technological development on home life in a democratic society.
12. The problems of old age.
13. An appreciation for differences between home and community standards.
14. The feeling of responsibility to participate in developing community standards.
15. In the considerations of similarities and differences concerning family life in other countries as compared to a democratic society.
16. In the appreciation of beauty in the home and community.
17. In the recreation, hobbies, and other activities which might be participated in by the family and community.
18. In the habits that contribute to good health.¹⁴

A very simple and direct statement of objectives is set forth in a

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 4-5.

resource unit in the social science field.¹⁵ The unit contains no general statement of philosophy or purposes. It is divided into seven "topics," as follows: (1) The Function of Money, (2) Our Monetary System, (3) The Federal Reserve System, (4) Kinds of Banks and the Services They Perform, (5) Money and Prices, (6) Money Management, and (7) Good Buymanship. These topics are presented in the above order, and for each topic one or more objectives are stated. These objectives are as follows:

1. To understand the functions of money.
2. To understand the historic background of laws regulating our monetary system, and to understand the provisions made for regulating our monetary system today.
3. To analyze the origin, the organization, and the functions of the Federal Reserve System.
4. To understand the relation between an efficient national banking system and a prosperous economy in the United States.
5. To develop an understanding of the various kinds of banks and the functions they perform.
6. To develop an understanding of the relationship between money and prices.
7. To learn the knowledges, appreciations, and skills of money management.
8. To acquire the information, skills and attitudes necessary to good buymanship.¹⁶

Some resource units deal with the problem of objectives as outcomes in terms of behavior patterns. A bulletin developed at the University of Utah¹⁷ is a case in point. The bulletin contains six resource units, as follows: (1) Life in the Pre-Revolutionary Colonies, (2) Mental Health, (3) Personal Economics, (4) So You Want a Job, (5) Effective Family Living, and (6) America on

¹⁵ *Money and Credit*, A Resource Unit Planned by the Philadelphia Economics Seminar for Use by Social Studies and Commercial Teachers. (Mimeographed) Philadelphia, Curriculum Office, Philadelphia Public Schools, 1951.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 2-25, *passim*. Note: Objectives 3 and 4 are listed under Topic 3.

¹⁷ Don Orton, Ed. *Resource Units as Means to Functional Learning*. Salt Lake City, College of Education, University of Utah, 1950. (mimeo.)

Wheels: The Automobile and Motor Transportation. For purposes of illustration the section dealing with *Anticipated Outcomes* of the unit, entitled Mental Health is presented herewith:

Anticipated Outcomes

A. In terms of student behavior

1. *Understandings.* The mentally healthy student understands
 - a. That most, if not all, of the physiological and social drives, needs, and urges that each of us experiences are shared in common by other normal human beings.
 - b. That conflict arises in the individual when these needs, drives, and urges are blocked from reaching their desired goal
 - c. That man must channel his energies, drives, and needs into socially useful ends
 - d. That when conflict occurs, tension is produced in the physiological structure of the person
 - e. That some tension is necessary for man's behaving in any way, whether it be socially constructive or socially destructive
 - f. That personal happiness comes from directing emotional urges and drives of life into useful patterns of behavior
 - g. That the main causes of unhappiness are experiences of life not directed into useful patterns
 - h. That weaknesses must be accepted and understood—everyone cannot be equally good in every skill, in every quality of personality, etc.
 - i. That the mentally ill person is not sinful or an object of amusement
 - j. The components of emotional maturity:
 - (1) Facing reality
 - (2) Accepting oneself
 - (3) Broadmindedness
 - (4) Substitution of short-term sacrifices in order to achieve longer-term goals, i.e., getting further education now to be more capable in effective living later
 - (5) Control of emotions, i.e., not leading in tirades, not saying everything that comes to his mind, and being able to see the other person's point of view
 - (6) Respect for the dignity of each individual personality
 - k. That the basic emotions of human behavior—fear, anger, grief, love, jealousy—can be examined rationally and integrated into a wholesome personality.

- l. That all normal people have the tendencies that are exhibited in abnormal behavior
- m. Each person must assume responsibility for his own behavior so as to further the common good of the group and community as a whole
- n. That every person has unique experiences which develop in him a unique personality
- o. That it is not the experiences one has which make up his outlook on life, but rather how he feels about these experiences which are unique to his own life
2. *Value patterns—attitudes, appreciations, and interests.* As a result of the experiences presented in this unit, the student should
 - a. Desire to develop behavior which is socially constructive
 - b. Desire to develop a more attractive personality
 - c. Want to be more useful in his own living and in the lives of those with whom he lives, works, and associates
 - d. Enjoy the possibilities of being able to share problems, joys, and interests with others
 - e. Want to develop effective methods of socialization in order to further cultivate his own personality
 - f. Be interested in achieving heterosexual adjustment
 - g. Want to be emotionally mature
 - h. Have interest in the desires, joys, and values of others
 - i. Want to be friendly rather than egocentric
 - j. Be tolerant of the differences between his personality and the personalities of others
3. *Habits, skills, and abilities* A student who practices good mental hygiene
 - a. Develops social skills which increase the feeling of belongingness
 - b. Develops personal strengths and recognizes personal weaknesses
 - c. Moves toward the goal of self-realization
 - d. Puts acquaintances at ease and shows sensitivity to their needs
 - e. Develops an objective approach to personal problems
 - f. Practices good physical health habits
 - g. Develops a sense of self-confidence when with others
- B. In terms of generalizations
 1. The primary source of emotional maturation is the individual's own resources.
 2. Scientific research, not popular beliefs and nostrums, provides amelioration of mental and emotional ills.
 3. One's personality is now becoming what it will be tomorrow.

4. The facts of mental hygiene are not of personal value until they are personally applied.
5. Sometimes the best assurance of achieving long-range goals and satisfactions is the foregoing of immediate pleasures.
6. All normal people at one time or another have abnormal problems.
7. Only as each individual is mentally and physically healthy can society as a whole be well adjusted.¹⁸

In this section a number of patterns for stating philosophy and purposes have been presented. The illustrations range from the very abstract high-level generalization to the very specific analyses approach. Resource-development groups need to think through the problem carefully before making a decision as to the type of presentation they wish to make. A given group's conception of the goals of education and the nature of the learning process will obviously influence the way the group states the purposes or outcomes of the unit.

B. The Scope of the Unit

1. *The resource unit should contain a statement of the scope, i.e., the limits of the area included; the major problems, issues, or hypotheses; definitions of terms used; the grade levels for which the unit is designed; and helpful references to orient the teacher to the problem area.* Practices in this category range from brief introductory statements to elaborate discussions of the nature of the area, its issues and problems. There is no common pattern.

Krug¹⁹ cites interesting examples of "content outlines or list of problems in the area," a term he uses instead of "scope." Some of these are nothing more than an outline of logically organized subject matter, such as one might find in a textbook. Such definitions of scope certainly do not represent any radical departure from the traditional course of study outlines. Perhaps they do serve a purpose. As Krug suggests:

The content outline also helps a subject-matter-minded teacher to gain a sense of security in preplanning. It provides a basis whereby he can

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 35-38.

¹⁹ See Edward Krug, *Curriculum Planning*. New York, Harper and Brothers, 1950. Pp. 174-5. Copyright, 1950, by Harper and Brothers.

check to see that no significant items are being passed over without adequate consideration in the planning process. Nor does this mean that the teacher simply has to "get it all in." In this sense the content outline makes a contribution to the comprehensiveness and balance stressed by some curriculum leaders.²⁰

The statement of scope may take the form of a list of problems (as distinguished from activities) which are pertinent to the area. The following is a typical example of this type of scope development. It was developed in connection with a unit on International Understanding.

Some Problems Facing the World in Its Struggle for Peace

1. How can countries with such conflicting economic, political and social ideologies as Great Britain, U.S.S.R., and the United States work together for peace?
2. How can national policies of restricted immigration be reconciled with the needs of the millions of homeless peoples in the world?
3. What is to be the future of the "backward" peoples of the world? Is this to be handled on a national or an international basis?
4. How are the world's resources to be distributed and controlled to attain a greater degree of economic security for all peoples?
5. How can the conflicting theories of national sovereignty and international order be reconciled?
6. How can the rights of small nations be protected in a world dominated by big powers who possess the power of veto?²¹

A more pretentious approach combines the essay-type exposition of the major problems of the unit with problems which might be asked by students. The following statement from a unit developed by Myrtle Toops entitled "Problems of Growing Up." is an excellent illustration of what seems to the author to be the most satisfactory approach:

Introduction. The purpose of this section is to present and clarify some of the major problems which early adolescents meet in their personal-social relationships and to present a position, which may be used in dealing with these problems. It is hoped that the method of intelligence

²⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 174.

²¹ *Ibid.*, p. 176. Quoted by Krug from a resource unit entitled: *Building International Understanding*, by Bernice M. Scott.

will be used whereby wholesome attitudes will develop and influence the conduct as students solve their problems in these personal-social fields. This section is designed to help teachers see the rich and varied possibilities of the unit.

The unit does not attempt to present all of the problems in this field or to attempt to solve them. It is hoped that the unit will be stimulation to a teacher to consider further study in developing the plans for study with the class and, thereby, enrich the curriculum.

The length of time devoted to the problems will condition the scope.

GROWTH IN SELF-REALIZATION AND PERSONAL LIVING

Keeping well. From the time the child is able to understand the language, he is counseled by parents, friends, and teachers about what foods are good for him and the ones that are bad for him, how long he should sleep, dangers of eating between meals, washing hands before eating, and various other rules of health. Surveys show that most school children can quote numberless health slogans but do not actually practice them. In a recent survey in a school cafeteria where several hundred children eat daily, only four to five per cent purchased raw vegetables and fruits or salads containing them, yet they had been taught for one hour each day during the whole year what foods should be eaten.

If the study of foods is to be functional and of the most immediate value in the eyes of the students, it must be presented to them in such a way that they see it in light of their own values and objectives. Girls will be concerned with the effect foods will have upon their complexions and their figures. Boys are interested in the foods which will build strong, healthy bodies so they can become better athletes. The study must center around actual experience, giving the opportunity of working with the foods themselves. In early adolescence some children are interested in learning how to cook, to use equipment, and to eat. They are so interested in themselves that they are interested in studying food needs, their effect upon the body, and planning and serving meals. They love to give parties. They will go to extremes to make them successes and will practice table etiquette and manners for days beforehand.²²

Too often the child does not realize that the mental outlook and social attitudes are closely bound to bodily health. Zachry and Lighty, in "Emotion and Conduct in Adolescence" (1940), say that "the body is the medium of the personality in the expression of the physical, emotional, intellectual and social aspects. The body is the portrait of personality.

²² Class of 1938, University School, The Ohio State University, *Were We Guinea Pigs?* New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1938.

*The posture and gait portray attitudes as much as facial expressions tell emotions and feelings."*²³

To the adolescent the importance of his body in shaping his personal life is very emphatic, because the bodily changes that take place are of absorbing interest to the individual going through them. The deep concern of many youth about their personal appearance as it is now and later makes personal health a matter of immediate interest.

The teacher must use care and tact in her planning. Most adolescents are interested in health and need help in solving their problems. The individual problems of health complicate the personal living of many students. Some come from homes where the diet and environment are not suitable to proper physical and mental health. Health must be presented as a positive quality rather than stressing the dangers and fears. Conditions conducive to health should be brought out. Mental health is as necessary as physical health. A happy, contented, wholesome-thinking child is the goal of schools.

In meeting the health needs, proper attitudes must be developed. The child must discover and develop the proper attitudes himself. He must discover that health is the basis of all happiness; that it is smart to choose food wisely; he needs to know that good food need not be expensive; that the scientific study of foods and health habits will help one to live longer and more richly. He must realize that social approval cannot take the place of ruined health, he must discover through experimentation that many of our advertisements and much of the printed literature are not necessarily true. Through critical analysis he will seek evidences of generalizations on radio, and in the newspapers. After wisely testing and experimenting he will formulate his own decisions basing them upon evidence gained. Through participation in discussion after scientific experimentation, and the organization of his discoveries, he will be able to point out fallacies in superstitions and arrive at decisions with skill and judgment.

Adolescents are not much concerned about the anatomy and physiology of their bodies. Some of the problems about which they might be concerned are:

1. Why can't I eat candy?
2. Are sweet and fried foods fattening?
3. How can I lose or gain weight?
4. Is spinach the best green food?
5. What do cigarettes and cokes do to me?

²³ Caroline Zachry and Margaret Lighty, *Emotion and Conduct in Adolescence*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1940, p. 33.

6. Is coffee harmful?
7. Why can't I eat between meals?
8. What does alcohol do to anyone?
9. Does the radio tell the truth about foods, strong drinks and tobacco?
10. How can I get rid of pimples on my face?
11. How can I grow taller? How does my posture affect my health?
12. Must I eat just what Mother says I should?
13. Why do most people take vitamin pills?
14. How can I know I'm not catching disease in a public rest room?
15. Are all restaurants dirty?
16. Will carrots improve my eyesight?
17. Is celery good for my brain?
18. How much sleep do I need?
19. How should I use my leisure time?
20. What exercise should I engage in to keep well?
21. Will keeping happy keep me well?

These and many other problems will be presented when students are permitted to help plan. The student who has the opportunity to experiment, read, weigh evidences, and arrive at his own decisions, will come to the realization that good health is necessary for personal happiness as well as the welfare of others. He will show greater interest in being healthy and active, in establishing and maintaining the proper food and other health habits because he has learned through critical thinking that it is best for himself and others.

Knowing myself. One has only to examine juvenile court records and social workers' cases to become convinced that the lack of a wholesome attitude toward sex has been the cause of much juvenile delinquency. The word "sex" is taboo in many homes, schools, and churches. Education in one of the most vital issues of growing up has been largely nobody's responsibility. This unit of work takes the stand that it is the duty of the school to provide accurate information and instruction in view of developing desirable attitudes toward sex in youth. In youth surveys it is one of the common interests checked by students. Many children of early adolescence brood over their questions in secret or resort to whatever their "wiser" friends have to offer. It is the belief of the writer that a unit may be planned entitled "Next Generation" or "Understanding my Body"²⁴ wherein the youth examine their problems openly and without the secrecy which makes "sex" something to be mentioned behind closed doors.

²⁴ Ohio State University Laboratory School teaches a unit in seventh grade with this title.

Children of junior high age should be developing constructive attitudes toward their bodies. Sex should be treated as a normal aspect of life. Through the study of flowers, frogs, and snails, many questions about which children are curious will be solved.

Some of the problems common to this age will likely take some of these forms:

1. What changes does my body make as I grow up?
2. What are the differences in the body structure of boys and girls?
3. Do girls grow up faster than boys?
4. How does life begin?
5. How can I find out if I am developing normally?
6. Will the foods I eat affect my development?
7. How can I develop pleasant manners, poise, self-control, and an even temper?

Personal grooming. Girls in junior high school spend hours on self adornment. Early signs of the interest are cutting off their braids of hair, talk of permanent waves, use of cosmetics, and discussion of clothing. Boys, somewhat later, begin to slick the hair back with oil, wear neckties and show concern over their clothing. These are real interests and youth feel the need for learning what is proper in self adornment. This need should be met through the co-operation of the core, art, science, social studies, and home economics teachers. In order to be successful in social groups, the adolescent must gain recognition and acceptance by those groups. Often unsatisfied desire for recognition and acceptance will lead the person to seek coveted attention through an over-emphasis on dress. Lack of attention blocks emotions and develops a feeling of inadequacy. Youth need help in balancing their desires. Clothes and personal appearance are often an emotional stabilizer to an insecure person.

The inner nature of a person is shown through display of his likes, interests, and tastes. His likes come from opportunities which his environment has provided for him, which he has selected because they appeal to his emotions. His interests come from activities offered by his environment which relate to his capacities. His tastes grow out of his likes and interests. Acceptance by a group and conformity to the group affects an individual's success and attitudes toward himself. His tastes may affect his establishment of good human relationships.

The school may well provide opportunities for the adolescent to learn how to express his or her personality in appearance and clothes and how to be attractive to others. A study of colors that suit the individual's complexion, the proper use of cosmetics, combinations of color, line and

form of clothing, choice of proper fabrics, dress designing, and how to care for the clothing are important studies. The proper clothing to wear on various occasions, the best fabrics to buy, and the propaganda used in advertising are other problems of youth.

Cleanliness of the hair, nails, skin, and teeth are necessary studies and worthwhile to youth.

Such questions as these are of vital concern and are often asked by junior high students.

1. Do I need make-up? If so, what?
2. When should I wear a formal?
3. What colors should I wear?
4. How can I keep my complexion clear and without pimples?
5. How often should I bathe?
6. What should I wear to . . . ?
7. How should I do my hair?
8. How can I dress well on a small allowance?
9. Should girls wear slacks?
10. Should girls go without hose? Wear bobby sox?
11. Should I use lipstick?
12. When are sport clothes in good taste?
13. What fabrics are best?
14. Will clothes win me friends and make me popular?
15. What kind of clothes should a fat person wear?
16. How can I gain poise?
17. How often should I change my clothing?
18. Do boys like fat girls and vice versa?
19. How can I keep my clothing clean?
20. What can I do to keep my teeth white and my skin soft?

EMOTIONAL STABILITY AND CONTROLLING MYSELF

In early childhood the child has, in many instances, developed a sense of security and feels himself a necessary part of his family; however during early adolescence this same child is beginning to break away from this close family attachment and is reaching out into larger areas where he is seeking that same sense of security with his friends and classmates. Some make the adjustment easily, but many lack emotional control and sense their frustration but do not know what to do about it. The child may offend his best friend; in a storm of temper, he may get himself into trouble thoughtlessly; he speaks before he thinks of the consequences; he resents any outside pressure; and, most of all, he constantly fears the loss of the friendship of his classmates whereby he loses his present

status. As he grows older new emotional elements appear in the relationship between boys and girls as he leaves the homosexual phase of childhood.

The school can be a valuable aid to the child by providing the opportunity to view such problems as these:

1. How can I be popular?
2. Why is the class against me?
3. Why can't I get along with my friends?
4. How can I put class welfare ahead of selfish interest?
5. Why am I not popular?
6. How can I overcome shyness?
7. Others have the nerve to do things, why can't I?
8. Why do some of my classmates show off all the time?
9. Why do the (girls or boys) want to run everything?
10. How can I get acquainted with more girls and boys?
11. How can I know I want someone for my friend?
12. How can I keep my friends?
13. How can I control my temper?
14. How can I grow to be unselfish?
15. Why do girls cry so much?
16. Why am I always getting my feelings hurt?
17. How can I be friends to everyone?
18. Should girls form little cliques?
19. Would hobbies help us?
20. How can I say "No" to the crowd?
21. When should I drop a friend?
22. How many friends should I have?
23. How can I spend my leisure time?
24. How can recreation contribute to my social growth?

Expressing myself. The child's relations with others will be affected by his ability to express his experiences in symbols which will have meaning to others and can be shared by them. The medium of first importance is our language, but painting, dancing, modeling, and music are other means of communication. Each individual is entitled to a chance for creative expressions, which will give him close communion with people. To understand people and to be understood by others is a need of the adolescent.

The school must provide each child with real experiences, and an opportunity and aid as well in reconstructing these experiences into meaningful ones.

Language is identified with the budding personality of the child. His

speaking and writing, if he is permitted to use it freely and without inhibition, gives cues for insight into his needs and tensions. His desires and his yearnings, his satisfactions and frustrations may be learned through what he says. His attitudes and feelings are revealed in his writings.

Children must be encouraged and given an opportunity for natural and free expression in terms of their personalities. In other words, content must be glorified before form, posture, and delivery. The learning situation is destroyed when teachers sacrifice ideas of children for their own standards of form. Standards will be developed as needs for them are created.

If students are given the opportunity to formulate their problems, no doubt some of the following would appear.

1. What should we talk about in mixed groups?
2. What should I talk about on a date?
3. What are the correct forms of introduction?
4. How do I introduce a speaker to our club?
5. How do I write invitations? Letters? Thank you notes?
6. How do I write an article for our magazine or newspaper?
7. How can I cultivate a pleasant speaking voice?
8. Are noisy, talkative people most popular?
9. Does correct English make any differences in my popularity?
10. May I show how I feel with my water-colors?
11. May I compose a song to show this story?
12. Why isn't slang all right?
13. How are meetings conducted?
14. What makes a good conversation?
15. What makes a good panel discussion?
16. What are good ways to conduct class discussions?
17. How can I interest my class in this project?
18. How can we sell the idea?
19. How do you write a summary? An outline?
20. How do I present problems at student council?
21. How are clubs organized?
22. How can I improve my reading?

DEVELOPING DESIRABLE HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS

Making and choosing friends. Friendships use much of the time of the adolescent. The violent group activity of childhood, such as running, gives way to loitering on the street corner, in the school halls, or in the corner drug store, where the youngsters engage in meaningless (from an

adult viewpoint) conversations, whereby intimacy is established and strengthened.

If these friendships are not established, the child feels friendless and he begins to doubt his normality and does not attain social effectiveness, and, as a result, emotional disturbances appear. Sometimes a shy, bashful child is thought to be a snob, or some may say they are misunderstood. The economic level of a child may be a social asset or barrier as the case may be.

Because the development of friendships is of tremendous importance to the future welfare of the child, this need should be met. Through discussion, reading, dramatization, and participation, higher ideals can be built. The teacher must provide activities within the class which will help youth realize the value of having something to offer friends. Leadership grows out of being able to talk convincingly and entertainingly. Lists of commendable traits might well be built in view of developing such attitudes as tolerance, ability to listen, the value of praise when it is due, cooperativeness, courtesy, leadership, desire to control tempers, and desire to be truthful.

Social techniques, such as the ability to play games, and dance, whereby poise and prestige are gained, are valuable aids. The non-democratic features of cliques may be studied as to how they might be extended to include the whole school. Sexual behavior standards and patterns may be worthwhile in some groups. A knowledge of common manners and customs is a valuable asset in making friends. Certain sensitivities will need to be developed, such as one's responsibility to his friends, an awareness of another's standards of appearance, and the worth of each individual, even if he is different in race, religion, or habits. An appreciation of the rights and achievements of others is important.

In view of friendships, children must have practice in all the social graces. They are interested in winning group approval and developing social skills to the extent of doing everything socially correct.

Some of their common problems are:

1. How can I keep my friends?
2. How do I introduce my friends to friends? To parents?
3. How can I make strangers feel at home in our group?
4. How do I make a date?
5. What is correct at a dance? At a tea? At a dinner at the hotel?
6. How do I spend an evening without money?
7. What are correct table manners?
8. Why can't we have dancing classes?
9. How can I get everyone to participate in the activities at the party?
10. Why don't boys dance with me?

11. Should I have dates in junior high school?
12. What games can we play at class parties?
13. What can boys and girls do in leisure time?
14. How many girl friends should I have? Boy friends?
15. When I enter a new school, how can I make friends?
16. How can I find out if I want a newcomer for a friend?

Living with my family. The family of modern society is rapidly changing. The decrease in the numbers in the family is marked. Invention has lessened the work within the home. Society has charge of the education, religion, and medicine instead of the family of old. There is no economic activity in most homes today. Parental authority is declining. Home has largely become a place to get part of your meals and a place to sleep. Children of working mothers are left in the care of others than family members. Society, however, can never give the affection and status to a child that the family can give.

The area of family relations is of vital concern to an adolescent. The feelings which develop between a child and his parents and teachers have a very great effect upon the child's behavior toward people in general as he grows up. As the child grows up, he realizes that he is a person, with ideals, ambitions, and purposes in life. He desires freedom and independence in his actions. He does not wish his family to know all that he does. He may be sensitive about family status and control. Many parents, as they see the child develop, visualize the man or woman they want him or her to become and will insist upon the same standards of behavior they had. They fail to realize that the child feels inferior when he cannot be like his group. All these things bring on conflict and rebellion between parent and child. There is a gap between generations.

The writer believes that the school should develop means whereby a child may develop greater self-confidence and new areas of independence with the aid and security of the family.

The young person who finds himself in rebellion against parents imagines his case is peculiar. He misunderstands, is perplexed and worried. The school must help students understand their families and their own relations with parents. It must help many students to realize that what is happening to them, is a normal growing-up process and that their parents are not so different from most parents. It must help them solve their conflicts and problems and to be less belligerent toward the counseling of parents.

The core teacher must help the student feel secure. He must respect the confidence entrusted with him. He must direct his thinking about family relationships. It is true many cases of maladjustment come out of

homes where the family relationships are poor and schools must help with the adjustment of the child.

Each adolescent wants to be understood and loved just as he is; he wants his friends accepted by his family; he wants to be proud of his home and to have one like the rest of his friends; he wants parents to understand this need for friends with both sexes and with other adults besides his family; he seeks freedom from domination by his parents yet he wants their love and protection.

The understanding teacher can do most to help students gain an insight into the importance of home life and lead them to see that most individuals have problems of personality and home adjustment and that all youth wish independence. Through the method of intelligence the child must gain happiness and security, and self-direction. He must develop skills in working, planning, and sharing in his family; he must develop attitudes of willingness to assume responsibilities in his family, a respect for authority and for the rights of others. Through examining his problems, and studying his prejudices, he should develop a co-operative spirit, and a tolerant attitude. He must show an appreciation for parental care and protection. Out of it all he will make his decisions for the family good.

The following problems will probably show some common interests of the junior high child:

1. How can I get my parents to understand and to trust me?
2. Why do the old folks say we are worse than the young folks were when they were young?
3. How much of an allowance should I have?
4. How can I get along with my brothers and sisters?
5. How should I use my younger brothers and sisters?
6. Should I take them with me all the time?
7. Why are my parents so strict?
8. How much of the work at home should I do?
9. How can I talk over my problems with my parents?
10. Why don't grown ups treat us as if we are grown up?
11. What can I do with my old-fashioned parents?
12. Should my parents punish me?
13. Should junior high boys and girls drive cars?
14. What are my responsibilities to my parents and home as far as work there is concerned?
15. Do I have to tell my parents everything or is it not wrong to keep secrets?
16. Shall I follow my crowd or obey my parents' wishes?

17. What is my responsibility in family planning?
18. What are my responsibilities with regard to the family budget?
19. How much should my parents control my actions and in what actions am I capable of maintaining independence?

LIVING WITH OTHER RACES AND RELIGIONS

The adolescent comes in contact with other races and religions in the neighborhood play, in the school, with maids and helpers in the homes, on the streets, and at work. Perhaps he gave them little thought as a young child, but as he develops he hears adults talk, his older playmates may engage in neighborhood fights, his experiences, within his environment give him certain views and prejudices. His parents and friends, the mores of his culture imbue him with beliefs, ideas, and prejudices, and thus, he grows up carrying on the class hatreds.

It is not the duty of the school to indoctrinate but it is its duty to provide the opportunities to weigh, judge, examine, and take on, or discard beliefs held. The conflict today between Catholics and Protestants, Jews and Gentiles, Negroes and Whites, is greater than it has ever been in this century, because these groups have been thrown together more often due to economic conditions, the war, and our new modes of travel and communication.

Children of the junior high school level reflect the beliefs of their parents with regard to both race and religion, together with the experiences they have met with them in their growing up.

It is of utmost importance that children learn to respect other people for what they contribute regardless of race, color, or creed.

In the junior high school a study of the minority groups, and their housing, income, and employment problems is worthwhile. The sameness of their nature biologically and scientifically should be stressed rather than the differences. How we came to have racial and religious problems, as well as the role played by these minority groups in our American culture will build the background for developing proper attitudes and interests.

In developing these interests provision must be made for groups to work, play, and plan with children of other races and creeds. An appreciation for the "good" life, and for an understanding of their own and other people's ethnic backgrounds must be built. Critical analysis of prejudices, reservation of judgment until facts are known, ability to distinguish between facts and opinion, the falsity of sweeping statements about the whole race when only a few have been observed are all attitudes which should develop from this study.

Some of the problems of adolescence might be concerned with:

1. Why can't the Negroes and whites get along?
2. Are whites better than Negroes?
3. Why can't the Negroes and foreign-born get along?
4. Are all Negroes lazy and dirty?
5. Do all whites think they are better than us Negroes?
6. Are all Jews stingy and dishonest?
7. Why do Gentiles sometimes hate Jews? Will Jews cheat Gentiles?
8. Why do some of the foreigners and Negroes live in such dirty districts? Do they like to live where they do?
9. Is the Catholic religion pagan?
10. What is the difference in whites' and Negroes' blood?
11. Are whites smarter than Negroes?
12. What are the differences in the religions?
13. Why do foreigners look different?
14. Why can't Negroes hold the same jobs as whites?
15. Why don't we have colored teachers in all of our schools?
16. What have the minority groups contributed to America?
17. Are some magazines and newspapers prejudiced?
18. Is there a superior race? Religion?
19. Why are Catholic kids sometimes treated differently?
20. Why can't Negroes eat in some restaurants? Sleep in some hotels?
21. How should I feel toward the other peoples of the world? Are we better than they?

DEVELOPING ECONOMIC EFFICIENCY

Earning and spending my money. Boys and girls long for economic independence because it is the means of securing greater personal freedom. Many children are granted allowances by their parents. This gives the child a greater feeling of independence.

Before the war few youth under eighteen were doing any work for pay. They could find nothing to do and as a result a feeling of insecurity developed along with a sense of frustration growing out of a not-needed situation. During the war children under fourteen found vacation and out-of-school-hours jobs that paid well. Again authorities report that youth under twenty will have no employment after normal times come after the last war.

The school can do little in the way of furnishing jobs, but there are several problems which youth meet that it can help solve. Exploratory projects dealing with the kinds of occupations that are worthwhile; ways of earning money; choice of a life's work; and how to spend money wisely are important to the needs of youth.

A study of advertising, of how to differentiate between good and

poor materials and workmanship, and how to make a wise choice of materials will make interesting problems. Avocational experiences should be granted as they often reveal leads to professional interests.

Problems in which youth are interested would include:

1. How do people in our community make a living?
2. What job would I like to prepare for?
3. Should I do the same work my father does?
4. What work should girls do?
5. Should I earn my spending money?
6. How should I spend my allowance?
7. Should I have an allowance?
8. How can I earn my spending money?
9. Should my parents help me to plan how I spend my money?
10. In what work is there the greatest future?
11. What subjects should I take in school to be a _____?
12. How can I make a budget?
13. When am I spending my money wisely?
14. How do I know I am getting my money's worth?

DEVELOPING CIVIC RESPONSIBILITY

Planning and participating in the school and community life to make for better living.

The needs of the adolescent for responsible participation and social recognition of their success in social-civic activities can best be satisfied only through actual participation and practical experiences themselves. Conducting meetings, studying housing, and making community surveys are a few of the ways whereby the youth can feel himself a necessary part of his school and community. As the junior high school child realizes he is growing up, he desires to know about his community and to feel himself a part of it. Through the local surroundings thought may be directed into wider communities.

As youth becomes conscious of himself as a part of his surroundings he will show interest in such problems as these:

1. How are meetings conducted?
2. How does one get elected to an office?
3. Should I choose a political party?
4. How can I make the greatest contribution to the progress of my class? Of my community?
5. How can I help us to have a good school?
6. What community organizations should I join?
7. What can I do to make my town a better place?

8. How does my community protect me?
9. How is my community governed?
10. What will attendance at church do for me?
11. Can junior high students govern themselves?
12. In what kind of world do I wish to live? ²⁵

C. Suggested Activities

1. *A wealth of carefully selected group and individual learning activities, organized for effective use, is an indispensable part of a resource unit.*

All of the possible student activities obviously cannot be included in a resource unit since many of them will develop as the teacher and students plan the learning unit. The activities should cover a wide range of types, such as creative and constructive activities, forum and roundtable discussions, role playing, psycho- and socio-drama, class plays, painting, modeling, seeing movies, listening to recordings, taking trips, parties, forming social, economic and political organizations, and the like. •

Factual and mere discussion questions have little place in a resource unit. They are products of the daily-ground-to-be-covered procedure all too familiar in American education.

Formulating, stating, and organizing suitable activities is one of the most difficult tasks of the resource-unit builder. The use of the unit will probably depend upon how well this part is carried out.

One of the most recent and extensive studies in this field has been carried out in a cooperative research project dealing with the contributions of different fields of knowledge to the core program.²⁶

²⁵ Myrtle Dewey Toops. *Problems of Growing Up* Muncie, Indiana, The Child Development Service, Ball State Teachers College, 1948 Pp. 17-31. Copyright, 1948, by Myrtle Dewey Toops. Note. The statement of scope is followed by a selected bibliography for teachers, an extensive list of student activities, classified in the same manner as the scope, suggestions for evaluation, teaching aids, and suggestions for teachers using the unit. It is designed for a core program at the junior high-school level.

²⁶ Elsie June Stalzer, "The Contributions of Mathematics to a Proposal for Reorganizing General Education in Secondary Schools on the Basis of a Core Program." Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Columbus, Ohio, The Ohio State University, 1952; Monir Kamel Mikhail, "Contributions of Science to Selected Problem Areas Proposed for a Program of General Education in the Secondary School." Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation. Columbus, Ohio, The

These investigators based their study upon Sixteen Problem Areas in general education developed by Lurry.²⁷ In order to determine the contributions of their respective fields to the problem areas, it was necessary to determine the possible major student activities that were appropriate to each of the areas. These activities were developed cooperatively without reference to *any* field in terms of the following criteria which the investigators set up.

Core activities should:

1. *Have potentialities for developing and promoting values basic to democratic living.*

Activities should promote personal characteristics essential to democratic living, such as social sensitivity, tolerance, cooperativeness, the disposition and ability to use reflective thinking in the solution of problems, creativeness, self-direction, and aesthetic appreciation. Activities that require group work should be emphasized, since it is through group process that students learn the meaning of the shared role of leadership, the responsibility inherent in freedom, the necessity for critical thinking in the solution of problems, and the need for continuous evaluation both of the products of group action and of the processes employed.

2. *Deal with significant problems and issues that have a bearing on a problem area without regard to subject-matter boundaries.*

Activities should be directed toward solving students' problems, meeting their needs and extending their interests in a given problem area without regard to the organization or content of any one subject-matter field. Activities that serve merely as "busy work" or as "lesson-learning assignments" are fruitless.

3. *Be sufficiently diversified to provide for individual differences among students.*

To provide for the fulfillment of the highest potentialities of each student, activities should include a wide variety of learning experiences, such as experimenting, dramatizing, visiting, displaying, reporting, seeing

Ohio State University, 1952; William E. Jennings, "Contributions of Business Education to Selected Problem Areas of General Education in the Secondary School," Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Columbus, Ohio, The Ohio State University, 1952.

²⁷ Lucile L. Lurry, "The Contributions of Home Economics to Selected Problem Areas in the Core Curriculum of Secondary Schools." Unpublished Doctoral Study, Columbus, Ohio, The Ohio State University, 1949.

movies, drawing, discussing, reading, and writing. The number of activities should be large enough to enable the teacher and students to make better choice of materials that will more readily meet the needs and interests of students.

4. Suggest sufficient direction for action.

To be of maximum value to the teacher, activities should be so stated as to imply a possible plan for carrying them out. For example, proposing a field trip to a museum is of little value, unless accompanied by suggestions as to what students might observe during their visit and what they might do as a follow-up. However, activities should not be so detailed that they eliminate or stifle teacher-student planning or creative student planning.

5. Provide the kind of experiences that are likely to contribute to the students' all-round development.

Since the physical, mental, social, and emotional aspects of behavior are inseparable and function as a unit, activities should include all phases of development. For example, an adequate study of sex would include its biological, psychological, and social aspects. •

6. Be organized in such a way that they can be most effectively used.

One way to organize activities is to classify them under appropriate categories. For example, activities relating to *Conserving Natural Resources* can readily be grouped under four levels [headings]: Community; State; National; and World-wide. These categories are not mutually exclusive, for complex human activities do not lend themselves to neat compartmentalization. However, they serve as centers for organizing the learning experiences. Such organization also insures the spreading of activities over a wide scope.

7. Be comprehensive rather than fragmentary in character.

Since learning takes place most effectively in terms of wholes rather than fragments, emphasis should be placed upon significant comprehensive activities rather than upon piecemeal activities which the students must somehow fit together. By comprehensive is meant that a number of related activities are grouped under an important topic. For example, activities that belong to the community level may be grouped under such topics as Soil; Water; Minerals; Wildlife; Recreational Resources; Forests.²⁸

²⁸ Stalzer, *Op. cit.*, pp. 24-25.

For each problem area, a brief introduction, the objectives and the scope of the unit were set up, after which the activities were developed in terms of the above criteria. It will be noted that this treatment does not fulfill all of the criteria for a good resource unit, *but insofar as the activities are concerned*, the technique is valid and applicable.²⁹

Because of the comprehensiveness of the study, it will be used to provide an illustration of the development of *activities* in a resource unit.

Problem Area Three: Problems of Developing Values and Beliefs, is selected as being fairly typical of core programs. In order to place the activities in their proper setting, the statement of objectives and scope are quoted.

OBJECTIVES

To help students:

1. Explore the various sources of values.
2. Become aware of the way they have acquired their beliefs, prejudices, superstitions, and other ideas.
3. Learn how to judge the relative value of alternative courses of action that are proposed to solve the problems arising within their day-by-day life.
4. Use the method of intelligence as a guide for selecting values and establishing beliefs.
5. Understand the impact of culture on values.
6. Become aware of the conflicting values in American culture.
7. Develop an open-minded attitude toward those who hold different values from one's own, or from those of the group with which one is identified.
8. Work toward developing a satisfactory world picture and a workable philosophy of life.

SCOPE

Studying problems of developing values and beliefs in the area of:

1. Personal Living
2. Personal-social relationships
3. Social-civic-economic relationships

²⁹ For another illustration of this technique, see Alberty and Others, *Utilizing Subject-Fields in Core Program Development* (Mimeo). Columbus, Ohio, Ohio State University Press, 1950.

I. *Studying Problems of Developing Values and Beliefs in the Area of Personal Living*

A. Religion

1. Invite representatives from different churches in the community as well as natives of other countries to talk to the class about their religious beliefs and customs.
2. Plan a panel discussion on one or more of the following problems:
 - a. Do people need religious guardianship in order to become moral?
 - b. Does human subservience to mystical, superhuman authority retard the progress of civilization?
 - c. What should one do about the so-called conflict between science and religion?
3. Make a case study of your religious beliefs noting their source, changes that have occurred in them, and the effect they have upon behavior.
4. Arrange displays of:
 - a. Pictures of places of worship of various religions.
 - b. Posters showing percentages of world population adhering to leading religions.
 - c. Biographies of great men of various religious beliefs.
5. See the films:

One God

37 min sd

rent \$10

Associated Films

New York, New York

1949

Presents objectively the forms of worship of the three major religious faiths in our country—Jewish, Roman Catholic, and Protestant

God of the Atom

50 min sd

color \$200 loan

Moody Bible Institute

Chicago, Illinois

1947

Presents the Christian approach to atomic bomb problems, with simple, scientific explanations of atomic energy.

B. Morality and Ethics

1. Make a list of moral values that would serve as a guide to behavior in a democratic society.

2. Invite a lawyer to talk to the class on the relation of law and personal ethics. Discuss standards for ethical conduct and regard for the rights and property of others.
3. Choose a vocation in which you are interested and report to the class on ethical codes relative to the individuals work-in that field.
4. Make a list of common practices which have to do with standards of right and wrong. Analyze each one as to its real basis. Is it a custom? Is it a part of our culture? Is it reasonable?
5. Discuss such problems as:
 - a. Is it immoral to make mentally or physically unfit humans sterile?
 - b. Is it immoral to dance, drink, or smoke?
 - c. Is it right to forbid the giving of information on how to prevent conception?
 - d. Are moral codes absolute?

6. See the films:

| | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| <i>Honesty Is the Best Policy</i> | Religious Film Assoc., Inc. |
| 10 min si | New York, New York |
| rent \$1.50 | 1940 |

Presents a life situation in which, through a coincidence, the integrity of an individual becomes a matter of question. It is a dramatic story of a young man who finds a wallet.

| | |
|----------------------------|--------------------------|
| <i>Behind the Criminal</i> | Teaching Film Custodians |
| 21 min sd | Inc., New York, New York |
| apply | |

A district attorney convicts an unscrupulous lawyer for his protection of a guilty criminal.

C. Scientific Method as Basis for Belief

1. Collect superstitions and make plans for testing some of them. For example, to test the belief that a person will have bad luck if he breaks a mirror, each member of the class might keep a record of his good and bad luck a week before and a week after breaking a mirror and compare both.
2. Prepare a bulletin board display contrasting some superstitions and unfounded beliefs with scientific beliefs. The following plan is suggestive:

*Pre-Planning for Learning***SUPERSTITIONS SAY *but* SCIENCE SAYS**

Diseases are caused by evil spirits.

Diseases are caused by certain micro-organisms.

3. Discuss the nature of the scientific method of solving problems. What skills and attitudes are necessary for being scientific?
4. Examine critically the following beliefs. Which of them are based on misconception? Superstition? Tradition? Fact? External authority?
 - a. Milk and fruit juice taken together will upset the stomach.
 - b. All life has evolved from simpler forms.
 - c. Walking under a ladder brings bad luck.
 - d. The most proper occupation for a woman is that of housewife and mother.
 - e. It is not knowledge but faith that we need to solve our most serious problems.

Follow up by analyzing the steps used in solving each problem.
5. Collect a number of advertisements from newspapers and magazines about some particular product such as a medicine for curing colds. Suggest several ways by which the claims made for the medicine can be tested. For example: asking a doctor, the school nurse, the druggist, members of the class who have used it; writing to the American Medical Association, consulting the several non-profit consumer advisory organizations; writing to the company for evidence; testimonials; medical opinion; and other published material. Decide which of these approaches are feasible and which are likely to provide reliable information. Volunteer groups can collect the various kinds of data, evaluate their validity, compare them with other confirmatory and conflicting evidence, and draw valid conclusions.
6. Set up a series of exercises that are designed to evaluate scientific attitude and ask members of the class to react to them. The following is illustrative: Some people believe that if a bird happens to fly into the house through an open door or window a death is certain to occur in the family unless

something is done to thwart the superstition's influence. Which of the following statements do you think would most nearly represent the reactions of a person who thinks scientifically?

- a. There is probably no foundation for the belief.
 - b. The belief is silly.
 - c. There can be little doubt that the belief is well founded.
 - d. For some people the belief is probably well founded.
 - e. While I do not believe in this, yet I am disturbed when a bird flies into the house.
7. Science has always been and is still a challenge to all forms of authoritarianism. Support this statement by various illustrations. Refer to the following examples:
- a. The world was created *versus* the world was evolved.
 - b. The earth does not move *versus* the earth moves.
 - c. The earth is flat *versus* the earth is spherical.
 - d. The earth is the center of the universe *versus* the earth is only one of several planets which revolves about the sun.
8. Plan a panel discussion on the problem, "Is Scientific Method Applicable to the Field of Morality and Values?"

II. Studying Problems of Developing Values and Beliefs in the Area of Personal-Social Relationships

A. Friendship and Family Relationships

1. Define specific problems in this area. Suggest possible courses of action and reasons to support them. The following is illustrative.³⁰ Alice has been invited to a party of school friends. Her parents have told her that if she goes to the party she must be home at ten o'clock. Alice thinks this is too early. Courses of action:
 - a. Alice should go to the party and return when the party is over.
 - b. Alice should go to the party and return at ten o'clock.
 - c. Alice and her parents should talk the situation over and together they should determine the time she should return.
 - d. Alice should stay at home rather than break up the party.

³⁰ *Suggestions for Teachers in the Area of Immediate Personal-Social Relationships*. Rocky Mountain Workshop Series, p. 15.

Reasons:

- a. Alice should not argue the question but meet the situation the next day after the party is over and take the consequences.
- b. Alice should be obedient to her parents.
- c. Alice should respect and learn to rely upon her parents' judgment.
- d. Alice should not cause a dispute at home or be made to meet conditions she does not want to accept.
- e. Both Alice and her parents should "give in" a little and come to an understanding about the time Alice is to be in.
- f. Parents and children together should discuss situations which arise in the family and try to work them out in a way which is satisfactory to all.

2. See the films:

Alice Adams excerpt
15 min sd
apply

Teaching Films Custodian
New York, New York

Family problems grow out of father's lack of financial success. His daughter's sensitiveness to appearance leads her into exaggeration and fantasy in her relationship with a young man. The mother blames her husband for the fact that the daughter is handicapped socially.

Family First
rent \$3
loan in New York State
17 min sd

New York State Department
of Commerce, Film Library

By a sequence of everyday episodes in the lives of two contrasting families this film demonstrates the causes of tensions, frustrations, and antisocial attitudes, likewise the opposite end results of affection, achievement, and harmonious personality adjustment.

You and Your Friends
7 min sd
\$40 rent \$3

Association Films, Inc.
New York, New York
1946

Scenes from a teen-age party contrast friendly cooperation with self-centered bad manners. Emphasizes those qualities people need if they wish to be, and to have, friends—loyalty, dependability, courtesy.

3. Identify some of the viewpoints of adolescent boys and girls which may be in conflict with those of their parents. What are some of the reasons underlying these differences? How may such conflicts be resolved?
4. Write your personal belief, your parents' belief, and the community's belief on the question: Is it proper for a high school student to smoke? Is there any conflict between beliefs? How may such conflicts be resolved?
5. Interview your parents and report their opinions on questions such as the following: What are the chief mistakes of young people today? What ideals would you recommend for modern youth? Compile results for the class and determine which criticisms were mentioned most frequently. Discuss whether the criticisms are justifiable and make recommendations as to what should be done about them.

B. Sex, Courtship, and Marriage

1. Invite various authorities such as a physician, psychiatrist, priest, minister, or parents to discuss problems presented by the class on sex, courtship, and marriage.
2. Compile some of the widespread beliefs among students and indicate whether you agree, disagree, or are uncertain. For example: Monogamy is the only moral marriage arrangement. It is not proper for a woman to take the initiative in matters of courtship. Women should follow higher moral standards than men.
3. Collect evidence to prove or disprove the following beliefs:
 - a. Women are the "inferior sex."
 - b. Children issuing from cousin marriages are likely to be defective.
 - c. It is possible for a woman to birthmark her child.
4. Set up hypothetical problem situations that involve choice between alternative values and ask members of the class to react to them. Following is an illustration: Helen is engaged to marry a fine young man. When she learns that his aunt has been committed to a mental institution, she hesitates to marry him lest her children be feeble-minded. What advice would you give her?

5. See the film:

Men in White

16 min sd

apply

Teaching Film Custodians, Inc.

New York, New York

The problems here emphasized are: the choice between marriage and professional training; whether or not a wife should aid in her husband's support while he studies; and whether or not people of widely differing backgrounds should marry.

III. *Studying Problems of Developing Values and Beliefs in Area of Social-Civic-Economic Relationships*

A. America's Value-system

1. Discuss the major ideals of American democracy. Compare them with those of other social philosophies. To what extent are public schools effective in teaching these ideals?
2. Compile a list of contradictory values and beliefs about economic, political, educational, and social questions. Get a number of persons to respond to your list by indicating the statements with which they disagree. Study their responses to ascertain the extent to which the respondents accept contradictory values. Following are some examples:
 - a. Democracy, as discovered and perfected by the American people, is the ultimate form of living together. All men are created free and equal and the United States has made this fact a living reality.
But: You would never get anywhere, of course, if you constantly left things to popular vote. No business could be run that way, and of course, no businessman would tolerate it.
 - b. Honesty is the best policy.
But: Business is business, and a businessman would be a failure if he did not cover his hand.
 - c. Women are the finest of God's creation.
But: Women are not very practical and are usually inferior to men in reasoning power and general ability.
 - d. Patriotism and public service are fine things.
But: Of course, a man has to look out for himself.
 - e. No man deserves to have what he hasn't worked for. It demoralizes him to do so.
But: You can't let people starve.

3. See the film:

Respect the Law

20 min sd

apply

Teaching Film Custodians Inc.

New York, New York

A case is dramatized in which failure to respect the law places the burden of one man's selfishness on the shoulders of an entire community.

Fury

14 min sd

apply

Teaching Film Custodians Inc.

New York, New York

Deals with wholesale perjury by members of a community in an attempt to protect twenty-two of its members indicted for murder and lynching.

4. Get the reaction of members of the class on controversial beliefs, such as answering the following statements with *Agree*, *Disagree*, or *Do not know*.

- a. No matter what a teacher does, he should always be obeyed.
- b. It is a good idea for pupils to make their own rules.
- c. Pupils should be encouraged to advance and discuss opinions differing from those of the teacher.
- d. A good citizen should not criticize his government but support it whether it is right or wrong.
- e. People who have ideas about changing our government should have the freedom to say so.

5. Discuss the effects of confusions in the value-system in America upon personality, social structure, and national unity.

6. Discuss the sociological factors disturbing the value system in America. Consider such factors as: decline of community life, impact of communication, transportation, and social mobility.

B. Social Class

1. Discuss beliefs such as the following:

- a. The lower classes have innate defects or they would have made good.
- b. The children of the upper classes should be given a liberal education.

2. What evidence is there to support the belief that in America

there is a class system? What are the effects of social stratification upon the personality of individuals? Upon social unity? Are there differences in the values held by different social classes?

C. Nationalism and Patriotism

1. Examine critically the following beliefs:
 - a. Our particular pattern of institutions (i.e., Christian religion, parliamentary democracy, capitalistic economy, monogamy) is the best pattern ever devised, and would be good for every other nation if they would only try it.
 - b. The flag is sacred.
 - c. Our Constitution is sacred, and any attack upon it can properly be regarded as treason.
 - d. The American people have more initiative, ambition, and energy than the people of other countries.
 - e. Americans are more moral in respect to sex than most other people of the world.
2. Debate: Resolved, that the best way to preserve the peace is for the United States to remain the strongest military nation in the world.

D. Race and Minority Group Relations

1. Collect evidence to prove or disprove the following beliefs:
 - a. The essential difference between races resides in differences in the quality of the blood.
 - b. The Anglo-Saxon stock is superior to all other racial groups.
 - c. Certain racial or cultural groups have distinctive personality characteristics which are transmitted through inheritance.
 - d. If a white and a Negro marry, the children will be Negro.
 - e. Negroes are naturally gifted in music and dancing.
2. Plan a panel to discuss the problem "What should be our attitude toward racial and minority groups?"
3. See the film:

Boundary Lines
10 min sd
color \$90

International Film Foundation,
Inc., New York, New York
1947

A plea to eliminate the arbitrary boundary lines which divide

people from each other as individuals and as nations, invisible boundary lines of color, origin, wealth, and religion.

E. Economics

1. Discuss: What kind of an economic system is best suited to our democratic culture?
2. Examine critically the following beliefs:
 - a. As time goes on, our economic system will inevitably become more socialistic no matter which political party is in power.
 - b. Free competition ensures maximum efficiency in industry.
 - c. New inventions ensure maximum efficiency in industry.
 - d. High tariffs generally result in higher profits, higher wages, and a higher level of employment.
 - e. Business tends to be more efficient when placed on a co-operative instead of a competitive basis.

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D. Bibliography and Teaching Aids

Every resource unit should include a wide variety of reference materials and other teaching aids with annotations, organized for effective use. Studies show that this section of a resource unit is one of the most valued by teachers. It is therefore important that it be carefully and accurately developed. A large miscellaneous body of reference material is of little use to the teacher. References which fail to list publishers and dates are not procurable, and without annotations the teacher has no way of determining their applicability to the unit under consideration.

This section should contain (1) books, (2) pamphlets, (3) periodicals, (4) films, (5) film strips, (6) slides, (7) pictures, (8) recordings, maps, charts, models and the like.

E. Evaluation

Evaluation procedures and instruments, selected in terms of the stated objectives, should be included as integral parts of the resource unit. This aspect of resource unit development is probably the one most neglected. Many units fail to deal with the problem at all. The resource unit should provide suggestions for evaluating the learning-teaching process provided for in the learning unit. The concept, procedures, and instruments of evaluation should be based upon the philosophy of education in which the unit is built. Some conceive of evaluation as measurement of learning and are interested in end products only; others may bring evaluation into the planning of the unit in terms of evaluating growth in the light of certain objectives but also are interested in end products; still others are interested in the measurement of changed behavior but do not consider the methods used to gain that behavior; while others think

³¹ Stalzer, *Op. cit.*, pp. 87-104.

of evaluation as a continuous process which is an integral part of the learning-teaching situation. In terms of one's concept of evaluation the methods, instruments, and use of the data collected will vary. If one accepts the latter viewpoint, evaluation will be thought of as being an attempt to get insights into the values which teachers and students hold in the educational program and to secure evidence as to whether those values are being applied in their relationship to each other. Evaluation includes the idea of placing value upon things and studying situations in terms of those values. It therefore begins when planning for the unit begins, is continuous throughout the unit, and must be considered an integral part of the learning unit. The evaluative process commences with an examination of purposes in terms of the goals of a democratic society and in terms of the methods used in arriving at these purposes. It is a process of determining how well and to what extent these purposes are being realized, and in this way it gives an opportunity for redirection or reformulation of the objectives continuously throughout the teaching process.

Purposes should be stated in operational terms that is, in terms of student behaviors. In planning for the resource unit, methods and situations must be considered which will provide opportunities for helping students to develop these behaviors. In addition, methods and techniques for evaluating progress toward the attainment of these goals should be included. The process of evaluating is one in which both teacher and students are concerned, and it must help them to perceive more clearly their values, goals, and purposes.

We thus see that evaluation is thought of as a process throughout the teaching-learning program and not just as a series of instruments or techniques to be used at the end of the learning unit. Values are shown in the way that life problems are met, and evaluation is a process of clarifying these values. The resource unit should offer suggestions to the teacher for helping the student to see what his values are and the consequences to which they lead in terms of democratic living.

It follows that the suggestions for evaluation in a resource unit are of necessity general rather than specific. Techniques adapted to

the particular situation will suggest themselves to the teacher. Yet suggestions for the use of some of the following techniques might be helpful.

1. *Paper and pencil tests and instruments.* These would be used for the purpose of evaluating information, attitudes, skills, appreciations, beliefs, and ability to think critically. These include: essay, true-false, multiple choice, matching tests; application of principles, interpretation of data, and nature of proof tests, scales of belief, rating scales of various kinds, and instruments dealing with social acceptance.

2. *Anecdotal records of student behavior.* This technique is helpful in evaluating changes in student attitudes and appreciations. These may be gained through observations in and out of school and through conferences and conversations with students.

3. *Student records, diaries, and other records of self-appraisal.* These may be used in appraising attitudes, interests, abilities, appreciations, and values.

4. *An analysis of jobs and projects undertaken by students.* This involves a consideration of both the process and the product and exposes values, abilities, skills, standards, and methods of attack.

5. *School records.* Those kept by teachers, administrators, and health officials may give information as to the growth of the student in terms of the purposes of the school.

6. *An analysis of written and oral work.* This may be valuable not only in getting at information learned but in getting at values, attitudes, interests, and appreciations.

7. *Reports and observations by parents.* Growth of the individual as revealed in the out-of-school situation may be gained through reports from parents and through conversation with them.

The amount of progress which an individual makes toward these goals varies with each individual and can be ascertained more objectively for some goals than for others.

Good illustrations of evaluation procedures in resource units are difficult to find. However the following section taken from a resource unit previously referred to³² offers an excellent example of helpful

³² Lucile L. Lurry and others, *Problems of Family Living* (mimeographed). Tallahassee, Fla., State Department of Education, 1951. See pp. 458-9 of this chapter for the objectives of this unit. The evaluation of the unit should be interpreted in relation to the stated objectives of the unit.

suggestions dealing with this important phase of resource unit development.³³

Evaluation Techniques

The evaluation techniques described below are suggestive of the many ways the teachers and students may secure evidence of student growth toward desired goals. The students and teacher not only work together toward determining goals but also determine appropriate methods of evaluating progress. The teacher will find many ways of securing evidence of evaluation.

In an analysis of evaluation techniques, we recognize that most teachers are familiar with "conventional" types of evaluation or "testing" instruments (true-false, matching, etc.). It is probable that there are times when testing for facts and using instruments of this type are helpful to both the students and to the teacher. It might be advantageous to test at the beginning of a unit to see how much the students already know about the subject. Also tests of this type might show a student her lacks in the area and she might use the information for future planning.

Many successful attempts have been made in the last few years to devise evaluation instruments that are to test such values as reflective thinking, consistency of belief, ability to cooperate, social sensitivity, and extension of worthy interests. It should be noted that the committee is committed to the development of these values as the major purpose of secondary education. In this discussion of these more progressive types of evaluation instruments, we wish to keep in mind that such evaluation takes place without any special instruments of a formal nature. The teacher in her day by day contacts with students will be able to find evidences of growth on the part of students. If the teacher analyses the situation whereby students unknowingly give information she will be able to do a fair job of evaluation on the growth of the student. Some phases where teachers can get information informally are:

1. The questions they ask.
2. The books, magazines and articles they read.
3. The projects they undertake.
4. Their part in group work.
5. The responsibility they assume.
6. Their manner in dealing with other people.
7. Interests they show in projects.
8. General community participation.

³³ The first paragraph is omitted for brevity. It presents essentially the same general concept of evaluation which was discussed above.

9. Observations of students at social events and after school activities.
10. Their writing and speaking.
11. General group participation.

Most teachers feel that these observations are much more meaningful when an anecdotal record is kept of behaviors of special significance.³⁴

Value Analysis Techniques of Informal Nature

1. One special value analysis technique has been developed whereby the teacher attempts to get at the values held by the students through written analysis made by students of some subject of special concern to them. This written article is analyzed by the teacher, sentence by sentence or phrase by phrase to see what the student seems to approve of and what she disapproves of. From this might come some indication of whether or not the student needs to look at his values in terms of their consequences. For instance, a student might place high value on beautiful clothes. The student needs to examine what constitutes being a well-dressed person and to understand that all members of the family should have a share in the clothing budget. From this she might see the implications of her values.

2. Another means of helping a student clarify her values is through role-playing.³⁵ She is asked to play the role of herself, her brother or sister, mother or father, in a certain situation. In order to see their side of the situation, it is necessary for her to put herself in their places. She will be able to examine the values held by each member of the family and can see how consistent they are with democratic values.

3. After some work in the study of Family Living, the student should be able to write a number of generalizations which express her beliefs. Such statements of generalizations will bring to light a number of things. From such statements values should be clearly seen; also, inconsistency in beliefs should be brought to light. If contradictory generalizations are made, it is likely that the student has failed to understand what beliefs the generalizations are based on. An example of a series of generalizations that a student might write follows:

³⁴ American Council on Education, Commission of Teacher Education, *Helping Teachers Understand Children*, The Staff of the Division of Child Development and Teacher Personnel, Washington: The American Council on Education, 1945.

³⁵ Robert B. Haas, *Psycho-drama and Socio-drama in American Education*. 101 Park Ave., New York: Beacon House, 1949.

- a. Children should have a part in planning how the family income is to be spent.
- b. Parents know a great deal about spending money to get the most value and therefore children should not expect to be the ones to plan the buying of their clothes and other necessities.
- c. The father should spend the money the way he sees fit since he is the one who earns it and should be the one to decide how it is to be spent.

These generalizations express conflicting values and indicate that the student is confused in her thinking.

4. The teacher can describe situations of family living and have the students write their reactions to the situation. This is another possibility for securing evidence concerning insight into factors which contribute to cooperative family living. The situation is described and then following this description of the situation, questions are asked to get specific reactions from the students. An example of such a statement follows:

The Situation: Marjorie's father is a doctor and she often goes with him on calls to the rural homes. Marjorie's mother objects to her going with her father because Marjorie always comes home wondering why the people must live in such poor homes, why the children haven't good, warm clothes; why they do not have money to buy the necessary medicines. Marjorie's father jokes and says: "Don't worry about such things, Marjorie. A pretty girl like you has no need to concern herself. The poor are always with us." Marjorie's mother says: "Why worry about them, they are happy as they are and would not have a nice home long or good clothes if they were given to them. They are just shiftless and no good."

The student is asked to write an analysis including answers to such questions as (1) What are some of the values held by the various characters? (2) Are these values consistent with democratic values? (3) Illustrate and tell why you think they are not democratic.

5. Reactions may also be written to selected short stories, plays, movies, etc. Values can be determined from statements made by students both by what they note and what they omit. Students might be asked to give a description of different situations and from this description the values held by the student could be revealed. For instance, a student might be asked to describe a person whom they thought had high democratic values, describe a democratic home or write on "The Kind of Person I'd Like to Be Five Years From Now." Some examples of books suitable are: *Papa Was a Preacher*, *I Remember Mama*, etc. Some good movies could

be: *Cheaper by the Dozen, Pinkie, White Tower, Life with Father, Father of the Bride.*

All means to determine values and consistency of beliefs should be followed up with appropriate means of examining these values and beliefs. Such means as individual conferences, small group conferences, class discussions, etc., should be used.

FORMAL INSTRUMENTS OF EVALUATION

The newer or more progressive types of evaluation instruments are a means of determining evidence of growth through improved attitudes, beliefs, and values held by the students. The interests, needs and problems of students may be discovered. Social acceptability can to some extent be determined. Thinking ability of students may be measured to a degree. Attitudes of students toward our major social problems can be to some extent clarified. Educators realize that these "intangible" aspects of one's development are of paramount importance in education and that we must develop a means of measurement concerning them. Many of these instruments, however, to be used successfully, require the development on the part of the teacher of an understanding which is not likely to be brought about unless they are studied with a trained person in this field. Some of the more easily understood ones are listed below:

1. *Social Problem Analysis*

This is a test designed as an aid in determining some of the beliefs and attitudes of students regarding our major social problems and also a means to bring social problems to the attention of students. Since most of these problems are directly related to the field of Home and Family Living this might become a valuable instrument at this point. Various points of conflict in our society are described in paragraphs and students are asked to pick out one or two of the best reasons they believe we have for delaying to do something about the specific problem. Also, they are asked to select, out of the many reasons given, the one they consider the poorest reason. Something of the same type of judgment is asked on what the student thinks of the scope of the problem; and what he considers the hope for progress in solving the problem is at the present time.

The results of all students' ideas are then gathered to see how other students feel about the problem. From examination of each other's views, the students will probably be helping each other to see more clearly what they believe, where they differ and how they can work together to get some of these problems solved.

The Social Problem Analysis might not fit the special situation the teacher desires but from this test any problems of school, community, etc., of a conflicting nature could be examined by constructing a similar one to cover the problem.

2. Who's Who in Home Economics Class

This test is designed to give a clue to how classmates feel about each other. In this test brief statements characteristic of different kinds of people are given under seventeen categories. Students are asked to list as many of their classmates as they believe are outstanding in each of the different characteristics. In it a student will state those with whom she prefers to work and to play in certain situations. To secure frankness in judgment the student is asked not to sign her name to the paper.

This device reveals which classmates the students consider as leaders, those they rate as having a sense of humor, those who want to give everyone a chance, etc. The results of this test help the teacher in grouping students for work, also, in giving insight into rejected students. In order to help them plan how to become more acceptable to the group, they need to realize the nature of their problems.

3. The Problems Check List

This is an instrument which can be used as a means of helping to determine the problems of high school students. Thirty problems in each of eleven areas are given. The answers to this test will give help in reorganizing the curriculum to help students solve the problems indicated from the results of all the tests.

- a. Health and physical development.
- b. Finance, living conditions, and employment.
- c. Social and recreational activities.
- d. Courtship, sex and marriage.
- e. Social-psychological relations.
- f. Personal-psychological relations.
- g. Morals and religion.
- h. Home and family.
- i. The future: vocational and educational.
- j. Adjustment to school work.
- k. Curriculum and teaching procedures.

Under courtship, sex and marriage such problems as: "Having a date, awkward in making dates, not mixing well with opposite sex, lack of sex attractiveness, uninterested in opposite sex, etc.," are pertinent.

The student picks out the problems which are troubling him and underlines these. Then he is asked to circle the number in front of the items which trouble him most.

Teachers can determine from this list some problems impersonal and general enough which can be discussed in class. Other personal problems can best be discussed in individual conferences. The teacher also gains an understanding of students which enables her to plan with them appropriate activities to help them meet their problems.

This instrument is excellent if used wisely but its effectiveness is dependent upon the philosophy of the teacher.

4. The Cooperative Family-Living Test

(For a description of this test, see section on Scope, pp. 7-11.)

5. The Ohio Social Acceptance Scale

This test is another instrument to determine the extent to which a student is accepted or rejected by the group. The students are asked to rate each person in their class under one of five categories:

- a. Very, very best friends
- b. Good friends
- c. Not friends, but O.K.
- d. Don't know them
- e. Other people in the room

This test furnishes a very good clue to those who are high and low in social acceptance. Students might be given their score if teachers wish to discuss their problems with them in an effort to work out solutions to their problems. This is also a good aid in planning group work and committee work on all types.

6. Syracuse University Attitude Scales

Each attitude scale is a series of statements regarding certain beliefs relating to standards for home life, understanding other people, participation in some civic affairs, choosing a life partner, or use of leisure time.

Tests have never been devised in which the whole process of thinking can be evaluated. We do have some instruments that reveal evidence concerning various aspects of the thinking process. A brief description of some of these tests is given. We suggest that before a school uses these that the faculty make a systematic study of the tests and how they are best used. This could be accomplished by cooperative study or by a faculty member or administrator who is interested in evaluation, and has

done recent work in it to explain the program fully. Another means would be to call in a consultant to help with the interpretation of the tests.

7. Interpretation of Data Test

The object of this test is to determine the degree to which students are able to interpret data without error. Various tables, charts, graphs, written statements, etc., could be given with a number of possible conclusions drawn as to the interpretation of meaning. Some of the conclusions are justified while others are not. The student is asked to distinguish between them. Students learn to see where they arrive at conclusions drawn from too few data; where they err by going beyond the data; where they read into the statements ideas that are not there. This test should help students learn how to draw from data only those conclusions which can be justified.

8. Application of Principles Test

Two types of application of principles tests have been devised:

- a. An application of principles of science. Here information concerning the ability of the student to apply knowledge gained in science to life situations where the same principles would apply. A teacher could use this type of test wherever subject matter, based on principles, is applicable to many situations.
- b. Application of principles of logical reasoning. Four principles of logical reasoning are tested. Students can determine their ability to distinguish between good and faulty reasoning.

9. Nature of Proof Test

An important part of the thinking process is in a sense being measured. A situation is described, a conclusion is drawn from the evidence given and a number of statements are made from which this conclusion might have been drawn. Some of the statements are facts, some are assumptions and some are neither. Some statements, when accepted as true, support the conclusion, some refute it, and some are irrelevant to it. Some are true statements, some are false and some are neither. From the test some evidence can be secured which the teacher and student can use in recognizing the need for more careful distinctions between true and false statements, and between fact and assumption. Students should realize that they need to judge their own statements as well as statements of others.

In Conclusion

The committee is stressing the fact that these instruments of evalua-

tion are suggestions only. No one instrument alone could possibly tell the true picture of the attitudes, interests, problems, etc., of a student. -A composite picture made up from results of many evaluation techniques will give a much better basis for judgment on which to formulate plans, reorganize curriculum, understand students, etc.

Also the committee is stressing the point that only if the teacher is dedicated to the purposes of teaching for clarification of values, understanding and solving of socioeconomic problems, promoting thinking and planning, and helping students develop skill in meeting their developmental tasks would these tests be given. We do not measure anything we do not put in as values. We are not likely to come out with anything we do not put into the curriculum as objectives.

SOURCES FROM WHICH INSTRUMENTS OF EVALUATION DESCRIBED IN THIS RESOURCE UNIT MAY BE SECURED

A. Bureau of Educational Research

Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio

1. Social Problem Analysis
2. Ohio Social Acceptance Scale
3. Problem Check List
4. Nature of Proof

B. Cooperative Test Service

1. Interpretation of Data
2. Application of Principles

C. Dr. Anna Carol Fults

Dept. of Home Economics Education
Florida State University
Tallahassee, Florida

Who's Who in Home Economics Class

D. Home Economics Education—Attn.: Dr. Letty Mitchell

University of Tennessee
Knoxville, Tennessee

Cooperative Family Living (Developed by Mildred Reed)

E. Syracuse University Press

920 Irving Avenue
Syracuse 10, N. Y.

Syracuse University Tests in Home Economics

- a. Choosing a Life Partner
- b. Understanding Other People
- c. Use of Leisure Time
- d. Standards of Home Life
- e. Civic Affairs ³⁶

A quite different type of evaluation is included in a resource unit entitled *Mental Health* referred to earlier.³⁷

EVALUATION

A. Standardized tests on mental health

1. *Cowan Adolescent Adjustment Analyzer: An Instrument of Clinical Psychology.* Ages 12–18; 1 form; \$2.50 per 25; 50¢ per specimen set, nontimed (10–30) minutes; Edwina A. Cowan, Wilbert J. Mueller, and Edra Weathers, Cowan Research Project, Salina, Kansas.
2. *Detroit Adjustment Inventory: Alpha Form of "Telling What I Do."* Grades 7–12, 1 form, \$2.10 per 25, 42¢ per specimen set; nontimed (30–40) minutes; Harry J. Baker; Public School Publishing Co., 509–513 North East Street, Bloomington, Illinois.
3. *Detroit Scale of Behavior Factors.* Grades 1–12; \$3.85 per manual (*The Diagnosis and Treatment of Behavior-Problem Children*); 20¢ per case record form; Harry J. Baker and Virginia Traphagen; Macmillan Co., 60 Fifth Avenue, New York 11, New York.
4. *Mental Health Analysis.* Grades 4–8, 7–10, 9–16, and adults; \$1.75 per 25; 35¢ per specimen set, any one level; 7¢ per copy, machine-scoring edition; 2¢ per answer sheet; nontimed (50) minutes; Louis P. Thorpe and Willis W. Clark, Ernest W. Tiegs, consultant; California Test Bureau, 5916 Hollywood Blvd., Los Angeles 28, California.

B. Standardized tests on personality

1. *California Test of Personality: A Profile of Personal and Social*

³⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 35–41.

³⁷ Don Orton, Ed., *Op. cit.* See pp. 461–3 in this chapter for the statement of "Anticipated Outcomes." This section should be read before the following statement on evaluation.

Adjustment. Grades kgn-3, 4-8, 7-10, 9-16, adults; Forms A, B; \$1.25 per 25; 5¢ per copy of machine-scoring edition (grades 4 and over); 2¢ per copy of machine-scorable answer sheet; 25¢ per specimen set of any one level; nontimed (45) minutes; Louis P. Thorpe, Willis W. Clark, and Ernest W. Tiegs; California Test Bureau, 5916 Hollywood Blvd., Los Angeles 28, California.

2. *Johnson Temperament Analysis.* Grades 9-16 and adults; \$1.75 per 25; 2¢ per response record sheet; 1¢ per analysis profile; 60¢ per unweighted scoring stencils; \$1.75 per set of weighted scoring stencils; 35¢ per specimen set; 7¢ per copy of machine scoring edition; 2¢ per machine-scorable answer sheet; nontimed (40-50) minutes; Roswell H. Johnson; California Test Bureau, 5916 Hollywood Blvd., Los Angeles 28, California.
3. *Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory*, Revised edition. Ages 16 and over; individual and group forms; Starke R. Hathaway and J. Charnley McKinley; Psychological Corporation, 522 Fifth Ave., New York 18, New York.
 - a. Individual Form ("The Card Set"). \$20 per testing outfit including 50 recording sheets; \$2.50 per 50 record sheets; nontimed (30-90) minutes.
4. *Minnesota Personality Scale.* Grades 11-16; separate forms for men and women, \$2.50 per 25; 3½¢ per answer sheet; 40¢ per set of hand-scoring stencils; 60¢ per specimen set, either form; nontimed (60) minutes; John G. Darley and Walter J. McNamara; Psychological Corporation, 522 Fifth Ave., New York 18, New York.
5. *Minnesota T-S-E Inventory.* Grades 10-16 and adults; \$2.15 per 25; 35¢ per set of scoring stencils; 50¢ per specimen set; nontimed (25) minutes; Catherine Evans and T. R. McConnell; Science Research Associates, Inc., 228 South Wabash Ave., Chicago 4, Illinois.
6. *Schrammel-Gorbutt Personality Adjustment Scale.* Grades 7-16 and adults; Form A; 90¢ per 25, postpaid; 15¢ per specimen set; nontimed (20) minutes; H. E. Schrammel and Dorothy Gale Gorbutt; Bureau of Educational Measurements, Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia, Emporia, Kansas.

7. *V.G.C. Personality Adjustment Indicator or Inventory*. Grades 9-16; and adaptation of Hugh M. Bell's Adjustment Inventory, Student Form (40:1200); Form S; separate answer sheets must be used; \$2.25 per 25; 40¢ per 25 answer sheets; 25¢ per specimen set; nontimed (25) minutes; specimen sets must be purchased to obtain the manual; adaptation by M. D. Parmenter; Vocational Guidance Centre, Ontario College of Education, University of Toronto, 371 Bloor St. West, Toronto 5, Ontario, Canada.
8. *Washburne Social-Adjustment Inventory, Thaspic Edition*. Ages 12 and over; 1 form; separate answer sheets need not be used; \$1.70 per 25; 20¢ per manual; 35¢ per specimen set; \$1.20 per 25 machine-scorable answer sheets; \$2.40 per set of stencils for scoring answer sheets; nontimed (30-50) minutes; John N. Washburne, published in 1940 by the World Book Co., 313 Park Hill Ave., Yonkers 5, New York.
9. *Weitzman's Inventory of Social Behavior*. Ages 16-25; 1 form; \$1.75 per 25; 40¢ per specimen set; nontimed (20) minutes; Ellis Weitzman; Sheridan Supply Co., P. O. Box 837, Beverly Hills, California.
10. *Wilson Scales of Stability*. Grades 9-16 and adults; 1 form; \$1.15 per 25; 15¢ per specimen set; nontimed (20-30) minutes; Matthew H. Wilson; Bureau of Educational Measurements, Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia, Emporia, Kansas.
11. *Adjustment Inventory*. Grades 9-16; 1 form; \$1.75 per 25; 25¢ per specimen set; (25) minutes H. M. Bell; Stanford University Press, Stanford, Calif.
12. *Personality Inventory*. Grades 9-16 and adults; 1 form; 25¢ per 25 individual report blanks; 25¢ per specimen set; nontimed (25) minutes; Robert G. Bernreuter; Stanford University Press, Stanford, Calif.

C. Other standardized tests and materials in the character-personality fields

1. *A-S Reaction Study*. A Scale for Measuring Ascendance-Submission in Personality. College and adults; separate forms for men and women; \$2.25 per 25; 15¢ per specimen set; nontimed

(20) minutes; Gordon W. Allport and Floyd H. Allport; Houghton Mifflin Co., 2 Park Street, Boston 7, Mass.

2. *Attitude-Interest Analysis Test*. Early adolescents and adults; a disguised test of mental masculinity and femininity; Forms A, B; 10¢ per test; \$1.75 per manual and scoring stencils; nontimed (40-60) minutes, Lewis M. Terman and Catharine Cox Miles; McGraw-Hill Book Co., 333 West 42nd Street, New York 18, New York.
3. *Behavior Cards. A Test-Interview for Delinquent Children*. Delinquents having a reading grade score of 4.5 or higher, individual; 1 form; \$2.75 per box of cards; 75¢ per 25 record sheets; 35¢ per manual, nontimed (15-30) minutes; Ralph M. Stogdill; distributed by Psychological Corporation, 522 Fifth Ave., New York 18, New York.
4. *Concept Formation Test*. Normal and schizophrenic adults; 1 form; \$12.00 per testing outfit; (10-60) minutes, Jacob Kasanin and Eugenia Hanfmann, C. H. Stoelting Co., 424 North Homan Ave., Chicago 20, Illinois.
5. *Every-Day Life: A Scale for the Measurement of Three Varieties of Self-Reliance*. Grades 9-12; \$1.75 per 25; machine-scorable answer sheets available, 2¢ each; \$3.50 per set of machine-scoring stencils; 40¢ per specimen set; nontimed (30) minutes; Leland H. Stott, Sheridan Supply Co., P.O. Box 837, Beverly Hills, Calif.
6. *Goldstein-Scheerer Tests of Abstract and Concrete Thinking*. Adults, individual; \$25.50 per testing outfit; Kurt Goldstein and Martin Scheerer; Psychological Corporation, 522 Fifth Ave., New York 18, New York.
7. *High School Attitude Scale*. Grades 7-16; Forms A, B; 1½¢ per test; 10¢ per sheet of directions and key; 15¢ per specimen set; F. H. Gillespie; directed and edited by H. H. Remmers; Division of Educational Reference, Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind.
8. *Humm-Wadsworth Temperament Scale*. 1940 Edition. Adults. 1 form; distributed on a restricted basis to authorized technicians

only; nontimed (30–90) minutes; Dorcaster G. Humm and Guy W. Wadsworth, Jr., Humm Personnel Service, 1219 West Twelfth St., Los Angeles, Calif.

9. *Interest-Values Inventory*. Grades 9–16 and adults; 1 form; \$9.35 per 100; 25¢ per specimen set; nontimed (30) minutes; J. B. Maller and Edward M. Glaser; Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 2960 Broadway, New York 27, New York.
10. *Inventory of Affective Tolerance*. College and adults; 1 form; \$1.75 per 25; 40¢ per specimen set; nontimed (25) minutes; Robert I. Watson and V. E. Fisher; Sheridan Supply Co., P.O. Box 837, Beverly Hills, California.
11. *Personal Audit*. Grades 9–16 and adults, Forms SS (short form), LL (long form); Clifford R. Adams and William M. Lepley; Science Research Associates, 228 South Wabash Ave., Chicago 4, Ill.
 - a. Form SS. \$2.65 per 25; 50¢ per specimen set; nontimed (35) minutes.
 - b. Form LL. \$3.65 per 25; 60¢ per specimen set, nontimed (45) minutes.
12. *Personality Index*. Adults; 1 form, \$3 per 25; \$1 per specimen set; nontimed (25) minutes; Howard K. Morgan; La Rue Printing Co., 906 Baltimore Ave., Kansas City 6, Missouri.
13. *Problem Check List*. Grades 7–9, 9–12, 13–16; 1 form; \$1 per 25; 60¢ per manual for either the high school or college form; nontimed (20–40) minutes; Ross L. Mooney; Ohio State University Press, Columbus, Ohio.
14. *Social Intelligence Test: George Washington University Series*. Grades 9–16 and adults; 1 form; \$12 per 100; 20¢ per specimen set; 49 (55) minutes; F. M. Moss, T. Hunt, and K. T. Omwake; Center for Psychological Service, George Washington University, Washington 6, D.C.
15. *Student Questionnaire*. Grades 7–14; 1 form; \$9.90 per 100; 35¢ per specimen set; nontimed (40) minutes; Percival M. Symonds and Virginia Lee Block; Bureau of Publications,

Teachers College, Columbia University, 2960 Broadway, New York 27, New York.

16. *Study of Values*. A Scale for Measuring the Dominant Interests in Personality. College and adults; \$2.25 per 25; 15¢ per specimen set; nontimed (20) minutes; Gordon W. Allport and Philip E. Vernon; Houghton-Mifflin Co., 2 Park Street, Boston 7, Mass.
17. *Test of Knowledge of Social Usage*, 1942 Edition. Grades 7-12; 1 form; \$5.50 per 100; 25¢ per specimen set; nontimed (30-60) minutes; Ruth Strang, Marion A. Brown, and Dorothy C. Stratton; Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 2960 Broadway, New York 27, New York.
18. *Thematic Apperception Test*. Ages 7 and over; individual; \$5 per testing outfit; nontimed (120) minutes; Henry A. Murray, Harvard University Press, 38 Quincy Street, Cambridge 38, Mass.
19. *Torgerson's Inventories and Record Forms*. Grades kgn-12; these inventories and record forms appear in Theodore L. Torgerson's *Studying Children* (Dryden Press, 1947); permission to mimeograph them may be obtained by writing the author at the University of Wisconsin; Theodore L. Torgerson.

(For further information regarding these tests consult *The Third Mental Measurements Yearbook*, edited by Oscar K. Buros, and published by Rutgers University Press, New Brunswick, New Jersey, in 1949.)

D. Teacher-constructed tests for knowledge of subject matter covered during the unit.

The teacher will want to adapt self-made tests to evaluate the material experienced by the particular group with which he has worked.

E. Teacher-constructed tests for evaluation of students' feelings and problems.

These instruments can be used at any phase of the unit. Examples of this type of test,³⁸ which are included herewith, are as follows: "What Is

³⁸ The Department of Secondary Education of the University of Utah is indebted to Earl W. Patten, head of counseling services at West High School, Salt Lake City, for his permission to allow the inclusion of these three exercises, viz., "What Is Your Attitude on Cheating?" "Dating," and "Meeting People." They ably illustrate the type of exercises the classroom teacher may devise for teaching purposes.

Your Attitude on Cheating?", "Dating" (social adeptness), and "Meeting People."

WHAT IS YOUR ATTITUDE ON CHEATING?

1. If you found a person for whom you had the greatest respect cheating, would your opinion be changed?
Yes_____ No_____ Indifferent_____
2. Did you ever get credit for gym when you were not present?
Yes_____ No_____
3. Did you ever sign attendance slips for people who were not present?
Yes_____ No_____
4. Do you feel that if less emphasis were laid upon grades there would be less cheating at school?
Yes_____ No_____
5. Do you believe that copying from reference without using quotation marks is cheating? Have you done it?
Yes_____ No_____
Yes_____ No_____
6. Have you ever relied on a critic's or a friend's reviews to give a book report?
Yes_____ No_____
7. Do you ride on a "pony"? Do you have notes written or placed in your foreign language book without your teacher's permission?
Yes_____ No_____
Yes_____ No_____
8. Do you express your sincere beliefs rather than cater to those of the teacher?
Yes_____ No_____ Sometimes_____
9. Do you believe that any of our leading students have cheated to get ahead?
Yes_____ No_____
10. Do you have a "ghost writer" for your homework? Does he haunt you or do you have him trained?
Yes_____ No_____
Feel guilty_____ Don't care_____
11. If you see other students cheating on a test, and know that by their

receiving high grades your own will be lowered, do you feel inclined to cheat? Do you do it?

Yes_____ No_____

Yes_____ No_____

12. Have you ever changed your own or a friend's mark on a test that you have graded yourself?

Friend's_____ Own_____ No_____

13. Do you cultivate special friends in the morning classes in order to find out what will go on in your afternoon class and whether or not there was a test?

Yes_____ No_____

14. Is it less dishonest to let someone copy from your paper on a test than to copy from a paper yourself?

Yes_____ No_____ Neither_____

15. Did you ever cut a class when unprepared for a class or when you had not completed your homework?

Yes_____ No_____

16. Do you think cheating can be completely stopped? Can the situation be partially improved?

Yes_____ No_____ Maybe_____

Yes_____ No_____ Maybe_____

17. Are you a parasite? Do you embarrass or anger your friends by demanding their homework to copy?

Yes_____ No_____

Yes_____ No_____

DATING

1. Yes No Is it tactful for a man to ask a girl for a date by saying, "Are you going to be busy Saturday night?"
2. Yes No Would it be better for a man to say, "Will you go to the Thanksgiving dance with me Saturday night?" than "May I have a date Saturday night?"
3. Yes No Is it necessary for a girl to explain further her inability to accept an invitation than to say, "I'm sorry, but I already have an engagement for Saturday night?"
4. Yes No Should a man open and close a car door for a girl?
5. Yes No Should a girl thank her escort for a pleasant evening?

6. Yes No If a man has asked a girl for a date some time in advance, does she have a right to expect that he will call her again a day or two before the time specified?
7. Yes No Should a man take a girl by the elbow except to assist her when the footing is dangerous?
8. Yes No Should a girl introduce the man whom she is dating to her mother or housemother?
9. Yes No Is it thoughtful of a man to wait until the last minute to ask a girl for a date so that she may be free to accept her most interesting invitation?
10. Yes No Does a person have the right to break dates because of a more interesting invitation?
11. Yes No Is a man responsible for a girl's being criticized by others when he has taken her to a questionable place?
12. Yes No Should a girl help a man on with his coat when he is ready after having called on her?

No. right_____ Minus No. wrong_____

Score_____

MEETING PEOPLE

1. Yes No Should a student introduce a college chum, "Mother, meet Alice Jones?"
2. Yes No Should one say, "Mr. Brown, may I present Miss Smith?"
3. Yes No Would it be correct to say, "Mrs. Smith, Miss Brown," when introducing two women?
4. Yes No Should one say, "Miss Freshman, may I present Mr. Senior?"
5. Yes No Is an introduction correctly acknowledged by "How do you do?"
6. Yes No Might one acknowledge an introduction by saying, "I am pleased to meet you?"
7. Yes No In introducing a person to a group is it necessary to repeat his name each time?
8. Yes No Do men always shake hands when being introduced to each other?
9. Yes No When being introduced to a woman, may a man offer his hand?
10. Yes No Is it proper for people in the same college class to speak to each other without having first been introduced?
11. Yes No Do men rise for all introductions?
12. Yes No Do women ever rise for introductions?

13. Yes No May one ignore a proffered hand?
 14. Yes No May a man keep on his glove when a woman extends a bare hand?
 15. Yes No May a woman shake hands without removing her right glove?
 16. Yes No When a man and woman are being introduced on the street, may the man keep on his hat?
 17. Yes No Is it presumptuous to introduce oneself to a person who is nearby at a social function?
 18. Yes No Would it be all right to say, "I am glad to have met you," when leaving a newly made acquaintance?
 19. Yes No Is it quite all right for one to correct another who has mispronounced his name?
 20. Yes No Should the visiting card of a girl of more than sixteen have "Miss" before her name?
 21. Yes No Must a man in college have "Mr." on his visiting card?
- No. right—— Minus No. wrong——

Score——³⁹

F. Leads to Other Units.

The possibilities of extending the type of experiences of the unit to other units or areas is sometimes helpful to the teacher in further planning with his class, and therefore should be included. Obviously there are almost limitless possibilities in any resource unit for further exploration and study. In many cases, one unit will lead into many others. Teachers and students will discover these leads as they pursue the work of any given learning unit. For example, a study of housing might lead to an interest in community health, delinquency, population trends, government housing projects, and the like. These might be treated as related units. A unit on communication might lead into a number of other units such as the radio, the newspaper, public opinion, or language development.

Those who prepare a resource unit should be sensitive to the possibilities of extended experiences along the same line. It will be helpful to the teacher if these possibilities are listed and elaborated sufficiently to make them clearly understood.

³⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 49-56.

G. Suggestions for Using the Unit.

A discussion of the various ways the different sections of the unit might be used by a teacher in the cooperative planning of a learning unit is an important part of every good resource unit. The resource unit should contain suggestions to teachers who are using it concerning the possible ways the material might function in developing the various steps of a learning unit. A prescribed method of use would defeat the purpose of the resource unit, which is constructed to offer opportunities for teachers to use their own initiative and ideas in developing learning units with their students. In his cooperative planning with students, a teacher must be well prepared with many ideas in order to function effectively with the group. The following suggestions are based upon the conception of the learning unit as involving three interrelated phases: Initiatory Activities, Developmental Activities, and Culminating Activities.⁴⁰

A. INITIATORY ACTIVITIES. The resource unit should give some suggestions for initiating the learning units which the teacher might develop to meet the needs in his specific situation. The approach to a learning unit should be a period of class orientation in which are carried on a series of vital activities that may extend over a period of several days. The purposes of these experiences are:

1. To extend and deepen the student's interest in relation to the unit of work.
2. To extend and deepen the student's background of experience related to the unit of work.
3. To help students develop and define their purposes in relation to the unit.
4. To lead students to see the possibilities in the unit in the way of activities which might be carried on or experiences in which they might engage for the realization for their purposes.

These initiatory experiences may include discussions, use of reading materials, trips and excursions, movies, recordings, or any other

⁴⁰ See Chapters IX and XIII.

means of increasing the awareness of the need to pursue the problem further and to stimulate a desire to attack it.

B. THE DEVELOPMENTAL ACTIVITIES. The second phase of the development of a learning unit generally includes the activities, experiences, readings, and the like, which the teacher and students plan for the purpose of solving the problems involved in carrying out the purposes of the unit. The resource unit obviously should make a contribution to this phase. At this point in the development of the unit, an attempt should be made to point out alternative suggestions for using resource materials in carrying on group and individual learning experiences.

C. CULMINATING ACTIVITIES. In order to strengthen the learning experiences, culminating or evaluating activities should be suggested. The type of culmination should depend upon the nature of the unit and the needs of the class. A successful culminating phase will give the students a sense of satisfaction and a feeling of control over the basic problems of the unit. It should provide further opportunities for the student to express himself through art, speech, dramatics, writing, and creative work of various kinds. Certain of the activities in that section of the resource unit could be suggested for this purpose.

If a unit of work has advanced successfully, evaluations have been continuously made by the teacher and students. Such evaluations may take the form of discussions, keeping records of progress, and taking various kinds of tests. The chief purpose of evaluation should be to assist and encourage the individual and class, to help them grow in ability to plan and evaluate their own work in terms of their objectives, and finally, to help them improve their techniques in order to overcome the difficulties encountered. The evaluation section of the unit could be drawn upon here to help the teacher in planning this final phase of the unit.

The culminating activities which summarize the work will aid the student to see his experiences in relation to the whole, to generalize his experiences, and to plan for additional learning activities.

Should every resource unit contain all of the sections presented in

this chapter and should the unit be developed in the same sequence as presented herein?

It will have been noted that there are many forms and organizations of resource units. Each group will have to experiment with the content and organization best suited to its particular needs. The major controversy seems to center around the problem of how specific suggestions should be. Should each aspect of the unit be presented separately with its own objectives, its scope, activities, etc., or should a more general, less stereotyped approach be made? There are grounds supporting either proposal. If the unit is too general, teachers complain that it isn't useful. If it is too specific, it may lead to a formal teaching procedure not much in advance of the daily-ground-to-be-covered procedure which it seeks to displace. More experimentation is needed before we can be certain that we have found the best way to develop and organize resource units.

SUMMARY

The construction of resource units is a valuable procedure in curriculum reorganization. It provides a means of introducing flexibility into teaching procedures and promotes interaction among staff members representing different interests. This cooperative relationship among staff members serves to enrich learning activities in the classroom.

Certain overarching generalizations concerning the development of resource units may be stated. Among them are:

1. Resource units are best developed by a group of teachers rather than by one teacher.
2. Resource units are likely to be most effective when they are used by the group that prepares them.
3. The resource unit should be organized and indexed for effective use, and published in a form that facilitates frequent and easy revision.
4. A program of resource-unit development requires that ample provision be made for physical facilities, released time for participants, secretarial and consultant service, and the like.

Criteria for evaluating the organization and content of resource units are as follows:

1. The general philosophy and purposes of the school in which the re-

- source unit is to be used should be well understood by those who prepare the unit and in most cases should be stated in the unit.
2. The objectives of the unit or its possible contributions to the general purposes of the school should serve as a guide to the development of the unit, and therefore should be explicitly set forth.
 3. The resource unit should contain a statement of scope, i.e., the limits of the areas included; the major problems, issues or hypotheses; definitions of terms used; the grade levels for which the unit is designed; and helpful references to orient the teacher to the problem area.
 4. A wealth of carefully selected group and individual learning activities, organized for effective use, is an indispensable part of a resource unit.
 5. Every resource unit should include a wide variety of reference materials and other teaching aids with annotations, organized for effective use.
 6. Evaluation procedures and instruments, selected in terms of the stated objectives, should be included as an integral part of the resource unit.
 7. The possibilities of extending the type of experiences of the unit to other units or areas is sometimes helpful to the teacher in further planning with his class, and therefore should be included.
 8. A discussion of the various ways the different sections of the unit might be used by a teacher in the cooperative planning of a learning unit is an important part of every good resource unit.

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PART V

THE SCHOOL AT WORK ON THE CURRICULUM

CHAPTER XVI

A PROGRAM FOR CURRICULUM REORGANIZATION IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

In previous chapters various facets of curriculum development have been explored. An attempt has been made to establish workable principles dealing with purposes, learning, adolescent development, curriculum design, classroom practices, and preplanning for learning. But knowledge *about* curriculum making is of little value unless it is put into actual use in the teaching situation. Many of the suggestions for improving the curriculum which have been made could be utilized by the individual teacher, even though no general program of curriculum reorganization is carried out by the school in which he teaches. He may improve and refine his philosophy. He may study his students in order to determine their needs. He may introduce new materials, such as supplementary reading and audio-visual aids. He may improve his discussion techniques. As a matter of fact, the teacher's growth is largely dependent upon the intelligence which he brings to bear in improving his own teaching situation. There are however, limits beyond which he cannot go without the cooperation of his colleagues on the staff and the administrators of the school. If he changes his program too radically, he is bound to run head-on into conflicts.

A school which operates upon the basis of individual freedom for the teacher with little or no concerted planning and action loses its finest opportunity to live democratically and to refine its program

through the pooling of the intelligence of all members of the staff. This final chapter is devoted to suggestions as to how the teaching staff may work cooperatively on the improvement of the program.

CURRICULUM REVISION A CONTINUOUS PROCESS

The school which is alert to its responsibility for meeting the needs of youth is engaged continuously in the process of curriculum reorganization. Every time a teacher utilizes new materials, plans with students for new types of learning activities, or finds new resources for making learning more effective, he is engaging in curriculum reorganization. And when all teachers are so engaged in terms of a common philosophy, common purposes, and a curriculum design cooperatively determined, curriculum reorganization becomes a continuous process. Unfortunately, such optimal conditions do not exist in many schools. Teachers have not been led to operate in terms of a reasonably common philosophy. The design of the curriculum has been handed down by those in authority. The teacher fits into the groove provided for him without asking embarrassing questions. He is "given" his curriculum in the form of a textbook. Obviously when such a situation exists, there is need for a concerted period of study and planning leading to relatively drastic changes. But whether there is continuous planning, or relatively little planning, every school should have periods of "stocktaking," for re-examining its philosophy and curriculum to the end that its resources may be used most effectively. Succeeding sections of this chapter are designed to help the school to plan such a program.

SOME GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT FOR INDIVIDUAL SCHOOLS

In this section a number of important problems relating to curriculum development in schools or school systems are taken up. This is done through the statement and development of principles which, in the judgment of the author, are important.

1. *The individual school is the most satisfactory unit for curric-*

ulum development. The literature of curriculum development discloses wide differences of opinion as to what is the most satisfactory unit for working on the curriculum. Experience in curriculum development over a large area, such as a state, has not been very promising. Virginia is a typical example of a state in which a very elaborate and intelligently conceived program was developed in the early thirties. Few traces of this program remain. The reason is probably that the unit was too large to involve a high percentage of those who were expected to put the program into effect. This does not mean that the state has no responsibility for curriculum making. It can help individual schools through bulletins, resource materials, and consultant service. It can also encourage curriculum development by liberalizing its program of certification of teachers and of standardizing high schools for accreditation.¹ Too many state departments, through their stereotyped rules and regulations and unsympathetic attitude toward changes, discourage schools from moving ahead.

County and city units are sometimes satisfactory if they have a tradition of working together, if individual variation within the system is encouraged,² and if local school leadership is democratic and is able to secure widespread participation.

Ideally, an individual school, by which is meant a group of pupils and teachers working with a principal, usually in one building, is the most satisfactory unit for curriculum development. A number of such schools may, of course, be coordinated by means of a central planning committee, but decisions on curriculum problems should

¹ For studies bearing on this point see: Clara Rosalie Chiara, *A Critical Study of the Secondary-School Curriculum Development Programs of State Departments Education*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Columbus, Ohio, The Ohio State University, 1948; Victor Lawhead, *A Study of Curriculum Development in the Secondary Schools in Selected Counties in Maryland with Emphasis on the Core Program*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Columbus, Ohio, The Ohio State University, 1950.

² See for example: Dorothy Mudd, *A Core Program Grows*. Bel Air, Md., Harford County Board of Education, 1949; Hugh Donald Laughlin, *A Study of the Curriculum Development Program of the Secondary Schools of Garrett County, Md.*, Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Columbus, Ohio, The Ohio State University, 1951; R. B. Hardesty, "Working with an Evolving Junior High School Program on the Local Level," XXXI, 30-35 (April, 1947).

be in the hands of the local unit. Democratic group processes are most effective in such a unit because there are likely to be more shared concerns, and participants are sufficiently well acquainted to facilitate the widest possible communication.

2. Curriculum development is primarily the responsibility of classroom teachers. A few years ago, Briggs³ came forth with a pronouncement that teachers generally were incapable of making the curriculum and furthermore had no desire to do so. A curriculum commission made up of the best minds was to assemble in Washington for this purpose. Undoubtedly Briggs' notion would have the support of large numbers of teachers and administrators, for traditionally the curriculum, usually embodied in adopted textbooks, has been handed ready-made to the teachers. The author has never been able to understand how teachers can be presumed to be qualified to work closely with children in the most complicated learning situations and yet be regarded as incompetent to "make" the curriculum. Actually, unless they assign daily lessons from textbooks and merely listen to the students as they "re-cite" what is "cited" in the book, they are actually *making* the curriculum every day. If we do not believe that teachers are competent to develop the curriculum, we might as well stop urging teacher-student planning, classroom guidance, and cooperative development of purposes, for these things are the essence of curriculum making.

3. A sound supervisory program is directed toward helping teachers to become more competent in curriculum development. In some cities the term supervisor has been dropped in favor of "consultant" or "coordinator" in order to help to destroy the traditional connotation of *super-vision* as an instrument of visitation and conference for the purpose of ferreting out weaknesses and then applying time-worn remedies which were regarded as the exclusive possessions of supervisors.

Many writers in the field of supervision analyze types of supervisors on the basis of conflicting conceptions of their roles. One of

³ Thomas H. Briggs, "A Proposal for a Curriculum Commission," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXIX, 79-90 (May, 1945).

the latest of these analyses ⁴ divides supervisors into four classes: (1) the autocrat, (2) the diplomatic manipulator, (3) the *laissez-faire* supervisor, and (4) the democratic supervisor.⁵ Needless to point out, Wiles advocates democratic supervision. He declares emphatically, "The principal problem for supervisors is to discover ways of working *within* staffs."⁶ Actually the supervisor should be regarded as a resource person whose main job is to help teachers improve the teaching-learning situation through coordinating the activities of all by finding ways of working together on the solution of common problems. Because he is freed from the classroom, he has the responsibility of helping to find resources and to give direction to the on-going process of curriculum development. The supervisory staff cannot and should not, even if it were competent to do so, develop the curriculum.

4. *The high-school principal assumes the basic leadership role in curriculum development.* In far too many schools the principal devotes most of his time to the routine of school management. He keeps the machine running smoothly, giving much attention to absence and tardiness, buying and checking supplies, and arranging for athletic contests. These are all very necessary activities, but they are marginal and affect learning only somewhat indirectly. Many of these activities could be delegated to clerks. Usually the principal is paid a very much higher salary than the classroom teachers. The best way to earn that salary is for him to assume the role of leadership of the teaching staff in solving problems that directly affect learning in the classroom. In other words he becomes the leader in curriculum development. In many instances high-level administrative policies prevent him from assuming this leadership role. The "central office" assumes the responsibility for him. The super-

⁴ Kimball Wiles, *Supervision for Better Schools* New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950.

⁵ *Ibid.* Chapter I Compare with the much older formulation in Harold Albery and Vivian T. Thayer *Supervision in the Secondary School*. Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1931 These authors include the "scientific" supervisor who goes from room to room administering tests, rating the teachers by means of checklists, and "objectively" measuring every aspect of the teaching-learning situation.

⁶ *Loc. cit.*

visors "check-in" at the school to inform him of their presence and then proceed to usurp his principal function. The easiest thing for him to do is to revert to the routine of "counting and dispensing thumb-tacks." In other words, a weak principal is made increasingly weaker by misguided administrative policy—and the dichotomy between administration and supervision is perpetuated.

5. *Laymen and students have important roles in curriculum development.* There is general recognition of this principle in theory—but far less in practice. The role of students in participating actively in all phases of classroom activities has been discussed fully in Chapter X. The classroom seems to be the logical level upon which they may function—and of course this does not mean that the teacher abdicates his responsibility.

The function of laymen is not as well understood as is that of students. At various points in this volume, instances in lay participation have been discussed.⁷ An important consideration in lay participation is the definition of the level upon which laymen participate. Curriculum development is a technical job requiring special professional competence. When laymen assume responsibility beyond their qualifications and competence the results are likely to be disastrous. For example, recently an organization calling itself the Educational Improvement Association of Upper Arlington (Ohio) sent to residents a folder setting forth the following statement of policy:

The Association supports the following principles that: The primary purpose of the Upper Arlington schools is to teach reading, writing, spelling, English, mathematics, history, civics, geography, foreign languages and natural science *as such*.

There should be a better standardized teaching plan in all grades, units, and subjects so that *each child in each unit of each grade level receives the same specific instruction at approximately the same time each school year*.

The parents have the right and the privilege to supervise the over-all development of their children.

⁷ See Chapter XII for a discussion of lay participation in policy making with respect to teaching controversial issues, and Chapter I for a brief discussion of the general problem.

We should preserve our American heritage founded upon the basis of free enterprise, the profit motive system and competition.

Teachers' salaries should have a larger proportion of the total budget.⁸

This is a clear case of laymen operating outside of the regular channels of participation, speaking upon matters about which, for the most part, they do not possess requisite professional qualifications. This kind of attempted "participation" often causes school administrators to oppose *all* lay participation, because of a fear that such participation may get completely out of hand.

Where levels of participation are clearly defined and projects involving cooperation have evolved through democratic processes,⁹ lay participation can become an effective way of improving the school program.

6. *Curriculum development is most effective when the basic principles of democratic group processes are accepted and utilized by all of the participants.* Many of these principles have been stated in connection with various phases of curriculum development discussed in this volume.¹⁰ At this point it is, therefore, only necessary to call attention to the fact that curriculum development is a common problem which involves many people and in which many people have a stake. Therefore, group process defined as the end-means procedures utilized by a group of individuals thinking, discussing, planning, deciding, acting, and evaluating together for the purpose of understanding better and/or attacking and solving common problems,¹¹ is the only means of working that will insure the permanence of the outcome. If the program is imposed by the leader, it is likely

⁸ *The School and You*. Upper Arlington (Ohio) Improvement Association, 1951, *passim*. (Italics added).

⁹ For many illustrations of this point, see Helen Storen, *Laymen Help Plan the Curriculum*. Washington, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1946; *Building Public Confidence in the Schools*. Washington, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1949; Joseph A. Brandt, "This, Too, Happened in Pasadena," *Harper's*, CCV, 76-79 (November, 1952).

¹⁰ For example, see Chapters III, X, and XII.

¹¹ Adapted from *Group Processes in Supervision*. Washington, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1945.

to live only as long as it is kept alive by the leader—if indeed it ever had any dynamic quality.

On the other hand, when once decisions have been made through the use of the group process, it is the responsibility of the administration to see to it that such decisions are put into effect. In another connection the author has expressed it this way:

The files of administrators are bulging with reports of faculty groups on almost every conceivable problem. These reports have taken many hours of faculty time. They have never been acted upon, perhaps because they have not met with the approval of an administrative officer or because of the multitude of details which engulf him. This often accounts for the skepticism of faculty members when a new committee is proposed. Continuous failure to execute decisions made by faculty groups leads to eventual frustration. It is not unusual to hear teachers say: "What is the use of working on this committee? Nothing will ever come of it anyway." The democratic group process has within itself the dynamics to correct its own mistakes. In other words, decisions and plans of action are experimental or hypothetical—to be evaluated continuously and changed as new data are discovered. A curriculum developed through the democratic process, even though it may be inferior on paper to the ideal held by the leader, is a living thing worthy of respect. To fail to accept it as the "best answer" as of that particular date, is a violation of the process by which it was created.¹²

ESTABLISHING A NEED FOR CURRICULUM REVISION

Teachers and administrators are frequently unaware of the weaknesses of the curriculum and the need for reorganization. The program has been "accepted" by the community without much criticism. The children of the influential people in the community go on to college and succeed. What happens to the children of less influential groups tends to be ignored. Before much can happen to change the situation, there must be developed a "conviction of sin." One way for a school staff to bring this about is to ask itself some searching questions about its program. Perhaps the place to begin

¹² Harold Benjamin, *ed. Democracy in the Administration of Higher Education*, p. 68. Copyright, 1950, by Harper and Brothers, New York.

is with the question of its basic philosophy. It needs to inquire seriously whether or not it is operating in terms of a conscious, articulate, and consistent set of values. But if philosophy is really to "bake bread," it must permeate the total life of the school. One way to determine whether the school's philosophy is mere "window dressing," rather than an effective guide to action, is to look critically at various aspects of the program. The following criteria are intended to offer some suggestions as to the kinds of questions that a school staff might ask itself. They might be studied by the staff as a whole or by working committees. In either case, several faculty meetings might be devoted to general discussions of the findings of the various faculty members or groups. These criteria should also be applied periodically to the reorganized program. The roman numerals after each criterion refer to chapters in this volume where the subject is discussed. The detailed questions are not exhaustive; are designed to give clues to what ought to be considered under each criterion.

WHERE DOES YOUR HIGH-SCHOOL STAND?

Criteria

- | | | |
|--|----------------------|------------------------------------|
| <p>A. <i>Does the curriculum make adequate provisions for all youth regardless of intelligence level, interests, race, creed, or socioeconomic background?</i> (Chapters I, II.)</p> | <p><i>Rating</i></p> | <p>Ex. Good Fair Poor</p> |
|--|----------------------|------------------------------------|

What is your drop-out rate? What type of student drops out? What are you doing to increase the holding power? What percentage of your students go to college? Do they succeed? What are you doing for the non-college-bound student? Do you section on the basis of ability? Any other basis? Does such sectioning, if any, reflect the class structure of society? Does your "fee system" work a hardship on students from low income groups? Can *all* youth profit substantially from your program? How effective is your guidance program?

- B. *Has your school developed and implemented a basic philosophy of education that rests squarely upon democratic values?*** (Chapters I, II, III.)

Rating

Ex. Good Fair Poor

Was the development of your philosophy a cooperative enterprise? Is your faculty in substantial agreement upon the meaning of democracy? Have the major values of democracy been broken down into operational categories? Have you worked out the implications of democracy for each area of the curriculum? For administration? For guidance? For classroom methodology? For public relations? For learning? Does your philosophy tend to indoctrinate? Does the staff periodically examine and revise the philosophy?

- C. *Is the curriculum based upon a dynamic conception of the learner and the learning process?*** (Chapters III, IV.)

Rating

Ex. Good Fair Poor

Do staff members support the organismic conception of learning? What place is given to individual and group reflective thinking? How is transfer of training facilitated? How does the curriculum provide for the development of attitudes? Are skills developed in relation to other learning products? How is intrinsic motivation provided for? What place is given to the student's goals? Are learning processes evaluated in terms of democratic outcomes?

- D. *Is the curriculum based upon the immediate and predicated needs, problems, and interests of the learner?*** (Chapters III, IV, V, VI, VII, VIII.)

Rating

Ex. Good Fair Poor

Have you used problems checklists as one means of discovering needs, problems, and

interests? Interviews? Case studies? Did the faculty make a thorough survey of the literature of adolescent development as one aspect of improving the curriculum? How is the so-called conflict between immediate needs and societal demands reconciled? Were needs, problems and interests of the students actually used in determining the scope and sequence of the curriculum?

- E. *Does the curriculum provide effectively for learning through direct first-hand experience in the school and the wider community?* (Chapters V, VI, VII, XIII.)**

Rating

| Ex. | Good | Fair | Poor |
|-----|------|------|------|
|-----|------|------|------|

Is direct first-hand experience an integral part of the curriculum, or merely "tacked on"? How much emphasis is placed upon "covering ground" in the textbook? Does your school encourage trips, excursions, etc., into the immediate and wider community? How effectively does the school utilize the resources of the community in providing effective learning experiences? Are students helped to develop systems of ideas as a result of their direct first-hand experiences? Do teachers object when students are "taken out" of their classes to go on trips? Is the public sold on trips and excursions, or does it regard such activities as "sight-seeing and play-acting"? Is direct first-hand experience considered by the faculty as educative as studying from books?

- F. *Does the curriculum provide an effective program of general education, designed to develop the ideals, attitudes, understandings, and skills needed by all citizens in our democracy?* (Chapter VI.)**

Rating

| Ex. | Good | Fair | Poor |
|-----|------|------|------|
|-----|------|------|------|

What concept of general education is held by the teaching staff of your school? Does

the staff recognize the significance of general education for promoting democracy? Is your school one of the 96.5 per cent of schools that still retain the separate subject organization of general education? Is there general agreement that categories of curriculum organization directly related to the needs of youth would be more effective than subjects? Are the personal-social needs of youth given prominent consideration in the program of general education? What concept of the core is represented by your present program of general education? What concept would you like to introduce into your program? What are the blocks to moving from where you are to where you want to go?

G. *Does your school make effective provision for all of the non-vocational and vocational special interests of the students?* (Chapter VII.)

Rating

Ex. Good Fair Poor

Does your curriculum provide a good balance of activities between the non-vocational and the vocational areas? Do the college-bound students have a richer program than the non-college students? Is your "student activity" program an integral part of the curriculum? Is your guidance program effective in directing students into the appropriate special interest areas? Do college preparatory subjects tend to crowd out the arts, music, and the so-called practical subjects? Does your school still follow the traditional Carnegie unit in setting up courses? Is the introduction of new courses determined by the faculty or the administration? What part do pressure groups play in the introduction of new courses and in the retention of outmoded courses?

- H. *Does your school utilize a modern plan of unit teaching and learning?* (Chapters IX, XIII.)

Rating

Ex. Good Fair Poor

How much of the instruction in your school is based upon the daily-ground-to-be-covered assignment-recitation procedure? How do teachers in your school provide for individual differences *within* the class? Are the units experience-centered, or just blocks of organized subject matter? Are the units based upon a sound conception of the learning process? Are units set up in advance, or decided upon cooperatively? Are daily assignments made within the units?

- I. *Does your school provide effectively for democratic student participation in the classroom?* (Chapters X, XIII.)

Rating

Ex. Good Fair Poor

Are the basic principles of democratic group process understood by the teaching staff? By the administration? By the students? Do teachers generally create an atmosphere of permissiveness in the classroom? Do the teachers make general use of role-playing, socio-drama, and psycho-drama? Do students help to evaluate their learning as the unit progresses? Do the teachers make effective use of committees for investigating problems? Are such committees democratically organized? Do students actually enjoy helping to plan? Are they gradually assuming more responsibility?

- J. *Do classroom teachers carry on effective programs of group and individual guidance through the day-to-day learning activities of the classroom?* (Chapters XI, XIII.)

Rating

Ex. Good Fair Poor

Does the curriculum actually help students to solve their problems and meet their

needs, or must these things be cared for outside of the regular curriculum? Does the special guidance counselor (if any) work mainly through the teachers or apart from them? Does the guidance counselor appreciate the possibilities of guidance through the curriculum? Is he a leader in curriculum development? Are adequate records available to the classroom teachers for giving individual guidance?

- K. *Does your school have a definite, well-understood policy toward including controversial issues in the curriculum, and are such issues consistently taught?*** (Chapters XII, XIII.)

Rating

| | | | |
|-----|------|------|------|
| Ex. | Good | Fair | Poor |
|-----|------|------|------|

Do the teachers regard the teaching of controversial issues an indispensable aspect of the school program? Are there shunned or neglected issues that teachers are afraid to deal with? Have definite techniques for dealing with controversial issues been worked out? Does the community accept the school's obligation to deal with all controversial issues that are within the maturity level of the students? Has a cooperatively developed policy for dealing with controversial issues been worked out and approved by the board of education?

- L. *Has your school developed and made available adequate resource units, files, or guides to aid teachers in the cooperative planning of learning activities?*** (Chapters XIV and XV.)

Rating

| | | | |
|-----|------|------|------|
| Ex. | Good | Fair | Poor |
|-----|------|------|------|

Are resource units in the major fields of the curriculum—particularly in general education available to teachers? Has there been wide participation of teachers in different areas in the development of resource units?

Do these resource units serve as guides rather than as mandates? Do these resource units include a wealth of suggested activities and teaching-learning aids? Are these units organized for effective use? Does the form facilitate easy revision?

M. *Is the curriculum of your school evaluated in terms of the values of democratic living and the purposes expressed in the statement of philosophy.*

Rating

Ex. Good Fair Poor

Does your school make use of the newer type of evaluation instruments designed to test intangible values? Is a program of standardized tests in the so-called fundamentals imposed by the administration? Does the testing program of your school promote, or interfere with curriculum development? Does a testing program imposed by an external agency such as a state department of education, or a board of regents interfere with curriculum development? Do college entrance examinations stereotype your program?

N. *Does your school engage in a systematic, continuous, and democratically organized program of curriculum improvement?*
(Chapter XVI.)

Rating

Ex. Good Fair Poor

Does the administrative and supervisory staff provide democratic leadership in a program of curriculum development? Do the teachers in your school regard curriculum development as a primary and legitimate function? Are laymen involved in the process of curriculum development? Does the administrative staff provide facilities, such as space, stenographic service, and released time for teachers, in order to carry on the curriculum development program?

The criteria set forth are not, of course, complete. Schools will find many other ways of establishing a need for a re-examination of their practices. In many cases schools already are so aware that their programs are weak, ineffective, and full of inconsistencies that they need take no time listing or discussing them.

PLANNING FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE PROGRAM

After the teaching staff has made a searching examination of its program and has discovered the points at which improvements need to be made, a plan needs to be developed for the purpose of bringing about needed reorganization. In the discussion which follows, the assumption is made that a need for a thoroughgoing curriculum-development program has been discovered. What possible steps should be taken in organizing the teaching staff for effective work?

Formulating the Philosophy of the School. The formulation of the school's philosophy is the initial step in curriculum development. In a real sense, the philosophy determines the kind of learning activities that are to be provided and the manner in which the school program is to be carried on. Without a clarification of the common values held by teachers and administrators, curriculum development programs can have little effect upon desirable growth. There can, of course, be some "tinkering" with the curriculum. Superficial changes may be made in grade placement of subjects; additional courses may be offered. New textbooks may be adopted. But unless there is a clear sense of direction, fundamental improvements are not likely to be made.

In developing the philosophy of the school, it is necessary to organize the staff for a study of the problem. There are many factors which need to be taken into account. After all, the plan should be adapted to the size of the school, its peculiar organization, the time available for professional activities, and the ability of staff members to work effectively. Whatever plan is adopted, it is important that *all* staff members play a significant role in terms of their various abilities and interests. Otherwise those members who do not share in the project are not apt to accept the results as being applicable

to them. As a matter of fact, it often happens that such staff members may be openly antagonistic. At any rate, those who do not participate do not share in the values that come when faculty members work on a common problem.

Many administrators and teachers make the mistake of feeling that the development of a philosophy is a disagreeable task to be got out of the way as soon as possible, so that they may "get down to something useful." This view, of course, is fallacious. In the first place, it is one of the most important ways of improving the program, and, in the second place, it is really a task that is never finished, for periodic examination and improvement are necessary. The desire to complete the task hurriedly often leads to undesirable short cuts. The staff may decide to accept, perhaps with slight modification, a statement worked out by someone else that "sounds good." This, of course, means little more than a verbal acceptance that will not influence practice. Another favorite scheme is to build a composite statement by "putting together" fragments gleaned from various sources. Nothing short of a careful, long-range study will be more than a purely superficial affair to be exhibited to state inspectors or to provide an introduction to the course of study.

In small or medium-sized high schools, it may be desirable for the faculty to work as a group through a series of general faculty meetings, with such division of labor as may be agreed upon from time to time. In larger high schools, the most feasible plan might be to select a small representative "philosophy committee" composed of faculty members who have a particular interest in the problem. This committee would be charged with the responsibility of making the preliminary investigations and formulating a tentative draft of a statement. The success of this plan will depend upon how effectively the committee secures help from every faculty member, and upon its ability to carry along the entire faculty with its findings. There is serious danger that such a committee will do all of the work, and as a consequence the principal values of in-service education of the teaching staff are lost.

Where does a school start in developing a philosophy and set of values for the high school?

Perhaps the simplest approach would be to make a study of the problems of the school with a checklist like that presented above. If such an instrument is used systematically, it should reveal problems which ought to be solved, weaknesses which ought to be corrected, improvements and additions which ought to be made. The discussion of these proposals would reveal the values which the staff considers significant and present some focal points for a statement of philosophy. Early in such a study it would undoubtedly become apparent that decisions as to what to do to improve the program would have to be made upon the basis of the highest level of agreement upon values which could be reached by the teaching staff. *This level of agreement would constitute the school's philosophy whether or not it was actually reduced to writing.*

A second approach to the problem might be to devote a number of staff meetings to the discussion of important issues in American education, the solutions of which imply a definite philosophical position. If basic agreement could be secured on these issues, the philosophy of education of the staff could be developed from these agreements. The staff itself might formulate these issues or it might agree upon some such list as the following, which the author has used in one of his graduate classes, and in numerous conferences with faculties and administrators:

1. Should secondary education be provided for *all* youth; for most; or for the relatively small group who are intellectually capable of profiting from it?
2. Should the school indoctrinate for democracy, withholding data concerning other ideologies; examine critically all ideologies and let the student decide; or indoctrinate for the ideology in which the teacher believes?
3. Should the school seek to develop primary allegiance to the state or region; to the nation; or to a world state?
4. Should the school stress *cooperation*; competition; or both and under what conditions?
5. Should the school stress primarily such attitudes as cooperativeness, social sensitivity, reflective thinking, creativeness, tolerance, appreciation; fundamental skills in reading, writing, computation, and factual knowledge; or should it give equal emphasis to both types of learning?

6. Should the curriculum be based primarily on the needs of the community (or region); upon the needs of adult society in general; upon the needs of the student as ascertained by the teacher; or upon the immediate felt and expressed needs of the student?
7. Should the school deal with all controversial issues that are within the maturity of the student; only with those of which the community approves; or should it deal only with established knowledge?
8. Should the school teach the method of intelligence (broad scientific method) as being applicable only to problems of an objective nature; to all problems except those involving morals and religion, or to *all* problems of living?
9. Should the school provide non-sectarian religious instruction for all; sectarian instruction for segregated groups, or no religious instruction at all? (Note. Disregard legal angle.)
10. Should all learning activities be planned by the teacher, by the students under the guidance of the teacher, or cooperatively by teachers and students?
11. Should the extent of direct, firsthand experience provided by the school vary inversely with the intelligence of the student; should *all* learning activities be based upon direct experience; or should direct experience be used as a supplement to logically organized race experience in the form of subjects or fields?
12. Should the curriculum be organized in terms of subjects, broad fields, a core for all, or some combinations of these plans?
13. Should all classes be grouped heterogeneously, should homogeneous grouping be made *within* classes on the basis of interests, or should all classes be grouped homogeneously on the basis of ability?
14. Should there be a general or common standard of achievement for *all* students within a given class, a minimum standard for all, with differentiation above the minimum; or should there be a separate standard for each student in terms of his own growth pattern?
15. Should the school evaluate the student's progress periodically by means of numerical grades, by letter grades, by informal written reports to parents; or by some combination of the above plans?

It will be noted that for each of these issues there are several alternatives. The alternatives reveal several philosophical positions. For any given group, it is possible to find the level of agreement rather easily if each member will respond freely in terms of how he would resolve each of the issues presented.

A third method of formulating a statement of philosophy for a

school is to make a study of the systematic philosophies which are to be found in current writing about education. The faculty might decide to adopt one of these or take a consistent eclectic position—if indeed that is possible. Perhaps Justman's¹³ analysis of the major philosophies is as good as any. He lists four basic philosophies: Humanism, Social Evolutionism, Social Realism, and Experimentalism. These four philosophies are explored fully; a study of them provides an excellent background for clarifying the teacher's philosophy of education. Excellent as this approach may appear to be, there are few faculties that would have the ability, interest, or patience to make a study of this sort—and few principals who could give effective leadership.

A fourth procedure, and one which is commonly followed, is to start with a study of democracy, its basic ideals and values, and the characteristics of personality which the good citizen of our democratic culture ought to possess. This study provides the framework for a statement of the purposes of the school. Since this procedure was used by the author in the development of Chapter II, no further discussion of it is needed here.

There are possibilities of combining two or more of these approaches. The important thing is to find by democratic means the highest level of agreement of the teaching staff upon the basic values on which the school program is to be based.

Studying the Adolescent. Regardless of the plan which the faculty adopts for reorganizing the curriculum, it is desirable that a systematic, continuous program directed toward a better understanding of the student be instituted. In Chapters IV and VIII, a survey was made of some of the more important procedures that are available to a school that desires to base its program upon the needs,

¹³ Joseph Justman, *Theories of Secondary Education in the United States*. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942. Other references which might be helpful are I. B. Berkson, *Education Faces the Future*. New York, Harper and Brothers, 1943; Theodore Brameld, *Patterns of Educational Philosophy: A Democratic Interpretation*. New York, World Book Company, 1951. Max Otto, *Science and the Moral Life*. New York, The New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 1949; V. T. Thayer, *The Attack on the American Secular School*. New York, The Beacon Press, 1951.

problems, and interests of adolescents. At this point, therefore, it is necessary only to highlight some of the steps which a school might take.

1. *Studying the literature.* A number of significant national studies have been made which reveal some significant trends in adolescent development. These should be used as the basis of a local survey.

2. *Studying the students of the school.* Utilizing the findings of other studies as a background, the staff may plan a study of the student population. This may be done by the use of interest inventories, problem checklists, questionnaires, case studies, and informal school contacts. Such a study should be broadly conceived in terms of the major problems which the student faces in his immediate and wide social environment.

3. *Formulating a statement of basic needs, problems, and interests.* Out of the studies suggested above should come a statement of the major concerns of students at various developmental levels. A committee, working with the faculty as a whole, might be charged with the responsibility of bringing together the data and submitting to the faculty a tentative draft of a statement which would be subject to continuous revision and elaboration. Such a statement has significant values for guidance and curriculum development.

4. *Improving the system of recording personnel data.* Studies such as suggested above are bound to yield data concerning students that are not usually available in schools because of the conventional record system which usually is limited to a few facts about the health of the student, his family background, his attendance record, and his school marks. A cumulative folder or packet system which would provide for the recording of significant data concerning problems, needs, and interests, as well as anecdotal and test records of behavior, should be instituted and made available and easily accessible to all teachers.

Even though a school does not plan to make fundamental changes in its curriculum, the steps described above—developing a philosophy and studying the student—would prove valuable, for

such a program would be bound to promote better understanding on the part of the teaching staff, better teacher-student relations, and curriculum improvement within the existing pattern.

Determining the design of the curriculum. This step would include both the design of general education and that of special-interest education. The staff would be required to make decisions as to the six types of core program, presented and discussed fully in Chapter VI, which it wished to adopt and determine the means of implementing the decision. The basic principles for determining the appropriate special-interest areas are presented in Chapter VII. Some such analysis as is made in that chapter might prove helpful in examining present special-interest activities and determining a policy for the future.

Implementing the design of the curriculum. The nature of this step will depend of course upon the design decided upon. If some form of the subject-centered curriculum is adopted, its implementation involves the utilization of the philosophy of the school, the analysis of the needs, problems, and interests of students, and consideration of the demands of the culture as criteria for determining the subjects to be required of all (general education), the elective program (special-interest education), and the scope and sequence of each subject.

If a Type-Five Core program for general education and a special-interest area program is decided upon, problem areas will need to be established and resource units developed at least in the area of general education. The procedures for carrying out this step are presented in Chapters VIII, XIV, and XV.

Deciding upon a concept of classroom method. In a sense this step also involves the implementation of the established design of the curriculum. Actually it carries the curriculum into the classroom. The evolution of the modern concept of method and unit planning is presented in Chapter IX and is illustrated in Chapter XIII.

The modern concept of method also involves student participation in planning, executing, and judging learning activities. It is important that the teaching staff agree substantially upon a policy with

respect to this important aspect of the life of the school. Chapter X should be helpful at this point.

Developing a program of evaluation. Throughout this volume the importance of evaluating the school program in terms of democratic values and the purposes for which the school exists has been stressed. There are two types of continuous curriculum evaluation which the school should carry on: the overall evaluation of the curriculum, and the evaluation of outcomes in terms of behavior.

The overall evaluation may be done quite informally or by the use of a checking device such as is presented earlier in this chapter.¹⁴ Such evaluations should be made periodically.

The evaluation of learning in terms of behavior is also an important aspect of curriculum development. This fact has been given some treatment in Chapter XIV in connection with the development of resource units.

From the analysis of traits or characteristics of behavior of the democratic citizen should emerge some very important values which ought to be made the basis of an evaluation program. Such an analysis was made by the evaluation staff of the Eight-Year Study upon the basis of the objectives submitted by the "Thirty Schools." This analysis then served as the basis of a program of evaluation-instrument development which broke new ground in this field. The following are the major categories:

¹⁴ See also Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, *Evaluative Criteria*, 1950 Edition. Washington, The American Council on Education, 1950. For evaluation of specific curricular programs see: Hugh Donald Laughlin, "A Study of the Curriculum Development Program of the Secondary Schools of Garrett County, Maryland." Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Columbus, Ohio, The Ohio State University, 1951; Kenneth Wayne Findley, "Developing and Evaluating the Curriculum in the Maumee Secondary School." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Columbus, Ohio, The Ohio State University, 1950; For controlled experiments to determine the effectiveness of core programs, see J. Wayne Wrightstone and George Forlano, "Evaluation of the Experience Curriculum at Midwood High School," *High Points*, XXX, 35-42 (December, 1948), and Bertis E. Capehart, Allen Hodges, and Norman Berdan, "An Objective Evaluation of a Core Program," *School Review*, LX, 84-89 (February, 1952). For a general discussion of evaluation in the core, see Grace S. Wright, *Core Curriculum Development, Problems and Practices*. Bulletin 1952, No. 5. Washington, Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, 1952.

1. The development of effective methods of thinking
2. The cultivation of effective work habits and study skills
3. The inculcation of social attitudes
4. The acquisition of a wide range of significant interests
5. The development of increased appreciation of music, art, literature, and other aesthetic experiences
6. The development of social sensitivity
7. The development of better person-social adjustment
8. The acquisition of important information
9. The development of physical health
10. The development of a consistent philosophy of life ¹⁵

The staff then proceeded to break down these somewhat intangible goals into more specific components and to develop evaluation instruments for testing them.¹⁶

While very few instruments for evaluating these intangible but important goals are available, it cannot be too strongly emphasized that the best curriculum-development program may bog down and become ineffective if the testing program is not consistent with the purposes or goals. *The testing program, in a very real sense, determines what is taught and learned.*

We have now completed a rather sketchy survey of the important steps which are necessary for a school to take in improving its curriculum. These steps are by no means sequential. Each school needs to determine its own organization and procedures. The analysis made in this chapter is intended only as suggestive.

Putting the new curriculum into operation. Obviously the curriculum of the school, interpreted as all of the learning activities which the school fosters for the purpose of achieving its goals, is a living dynamic process which cannot ever be regarded as a finished

¹⁵ Eugene R. Smith, Ralph Tyler, et al. *Appraising and Recording Student Progress*. New York, Harper and Brothers, 1942, p. 18. By permission of The McGraw-Hill Book Company.

¹⁶ For an excellent discussion of these and other evaluation devices, see I. N. Thut and J. Raymond Gerberich, *Foundations of Methods for Secondary Schools*. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1949, Chapter 14; Harold G. Shane, "A 1950 Census of Evaluation Practices," *Educational Leadership*, VIII, 73-77 (Nov. 1950). In this same issue are excellent articles by Louis Rath, Dorothy Mudd, R. H. Ostrander, J. Wayne Wrightstone and Kenneth B. Henderson.

product. Changes need to be made gradually and thoroughly tested in terms of their effectiveness in promoting more effective learning. Thus the "new curriculum" is not something that is "installed" completely at a given time; rather it is put into effect as decisions are made and as conditions as to staff and resources can be worked out. For example, if a core curriculum were decided upon it might be tried out in one or two grades and then gradually extended to the entire school as tested experience justified such extension. In other words, "the old house has to be used while the new one is being constructed."

A FINAL WORD

The foregoing discussion has presented a tentative program by means of which a school may reconstruct its basic purposes and its curriculum. The proposal breaks sharply with traditional practices in the high school, which tend to ignore the problem of unity of purpose and to assume that the teacher's principal job is to impart knowledge and develop the skills which are determined largely by the adopted textbook. Should schools undertake the difficult task of changing traditional practices and transforming themselves into laboratories for the study of the problems which beset youth in our confused society, and for designing an educational program which adequately meets their need? This volume is a plea that this should be done. If the high school is to become one of the dynamic agencies by means of which our democratic society reconstructs itself, it *must* be done. That it can be done is evidenced by the growing number of schools that have been successful in working democratically on the problem.

Such living and working together under the guidance of a democratic philosophy of education should have a three-fold effect. *First*, it should be the means of making the school an integral part of the life of the community instead of an institution apart from the vital currents of living. *Second*, it should transform the school into a place where students come to get help in the solving of their problems instead of a place where "lessons" are learned. *Third*, it should raise teaching to the level of a profession with unlimited possibilities for

personal growth instead of a more or less temporary job to be carried out with little or no personal initiative or imagination.

The high school has a distinctive role to play in the perpetuation and refinement of our democratic way of life. It has an excellent chance of success if it dedicates itself to this high purpose and proceeds intelligently and courageously to the task of reorganizing itself to meet the challenge of the times.

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AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

The following is a selected list¹ of films, filmstrips, and recordings that should prove helpful to prospective teachers and teachers in service. Following each listing, the chapters of this volume to which the theme is related are given in parentheses.

FILMS (All are 16 mm)

Broader Concept of Method: Part I, Developing Pupil Interest, 15 min., sd., b & w.

Broader Concept of Method. Part II, Teachers and Pupils Planning and Working Together, 18 min., sd., b & w. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Film Dept. 330 W. 42nd Street, New York.

Emphasizes contrast between traditional and modern teaching procedures. Clear presentation of techniques of teacher-pupil planning. (Chapters IX-XIII; XVI.)

Democracy. 11 min., sd., b & w. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, 1150 Wilmette Avenue, Wilmette, Illinois. See *Despotism* also.

Brief but practical definition of democracy. (Chapters II, XVI.)

Design of American Public Education, 14 min., sd., b & w., McGraw-Hill Book Company, Text-Film Dept., 330 W. 42nd Street, New York 18, New York. Also available as a filmstrip.

An "assembly line" educational process is contrasted with a genuinely democratic, decentralized, local elected educational system that tailors its curriculum to community needs. (Chapters II, XVI.)

Despotism. 10 min., sd., color or b & w. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, 1150 Wilmette Avenue, Wilmette, Illinois. (Chapters II, XVI.) Companion film to *Democracy* listed above. interprets meaning of democracy and its implications for school programs.

¹ The author is indebted to Norman Woelfel, and Hazel Gibbony, of The Ohio State University, Teaching Aids Laboratory, for assistance in compiling these materials. For complete information about films and film strips consult the *Educational Film Guide*, and the *Film Strip Guide*, published by the H. W. Wilson Company, 950 University Avenue, New York.

Educational Psychology Series. (Five films and five silent filmstrips), McGraw-Hill Book Company, Film Dept., 330 W. 42nd Street, New York.

1. Importance of Goals, 19 min., sd., b & w.
2. Motivating the Class, 19 min., sd., b & w.
3. Individual Differences, 23 min., sd., b & w.
4. Problem of Pupil Adjustment, Part I. "The Drop-Out: A Case Study." 20 min., sd., b & w.
5. Problem of Pupil Adjustment, Part II; "The Stay-In: A School Study." 19 min., sd., b & w.
(Chapters III, IV, IX-XIII, XVI.)

How We Learn. 10 min., sd., b & w., Coronet Films, Coronet Building, Chicago 1, Illinois.

Analyzes the process of learning and shows the two components: "readiness" and "materials." (Chapter III.)

Learning Through Co-operative Planning 18 min., sd., b & w. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

Shows how an all-school project can contribute to the learning of so-called fundamental skills. (Chapters V, VI, IX, XIII, XVI.)

Our Town Is Our Classroom. 21 min., sd., b & w., United World Films, 1445 Park Avenue, New York 29, New York.

Produced by U. S. Army, originally for use in occupied areas. Shows the teaching of pupils in school about the government of their town. Instead of learning from books, they sit in on town council meetings, in court, and in meetings between citizens and officials. (Chapters V-VII, IX-XIII, XVI.)

Preparation of Teachers. 21 min., sd., b & w., United World Films, 1445 Park Avenue, New York, New York.

Prepared for U. S. Department of State Overseas programs. Teacher education at Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana. How to understand children, provide for individual pupil differences, develop desirable personality traits in teachers. (Chapter XVI.)

School and The Community. 14 min., sd., b & w. McGraw-Hill Book Company, 330 W. 42nd Street, New York, New York.

The problem of the separation between many schools and their community; the losses which both suffer thereby, and the benefits which both gain when they co-operate. (Chapter V.)

Social Change in a Democracy. 29 min., sd., b & w. United World Films, 1445 Park Avenue, New York, New York.

Prepared by U. S. Army, originally for use in occupied areas. Students in a social science class discuss the conditions which exist in a democracy and those which exist in a totalitarian state, and learn firsthand

how a problem in their own community, arising from a social change, is solved by law and assembly rather than by violence. (Chapters II, V-VIII.)

We Plan Together. 21 min., sd., b & w. (Companion film to *Learning Through Co-operative Planning.*) Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York. (Chapters V, VI, IX-XIII, XVI.)

FILMSTRIPS

A Core Curriculum Class in Action. 46 frames, b & w., silent with text. Audio-Visual Materials Consultation Bureau, Wayne University, Detroit.

Follows a typical ninth-grade core class from its first class meeting through various teacher-pupil-planned activities and the final evaluation of the work done. (Chapters VI, IX, XIII, XVI.)

Making Teaching Effective. 40 frames, b & w., silent. The Ohio State University, Teaching Aids Laboratory, Columbus, Ohio.

Excellent illustrations of sound educational practices. (Chapters IX-XIII.)

Your Educational Philosophy—Does It Matter? b & w., silent, discussion guide. Wayne University, Detroit. (Visual Materials Consultation Bureau.)

Provides illustrations, as a basis for group discussion, of two different educational philosophies in action in the classroom and gives tangible ways in which to measure, and develop a personal educational philosophy. (Chapter II.)

RECORDINGS

Educational Growth Series. (microgroove, 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ rpm; Educational Recording Services, 5922 Abetnathy Drive, Los Angeles 45, California.)

A series of thirty 40–45 minute discussions by educators on a variety of topics. All are more or less applicable to teacher education programs. The following titles are particularly applicable to the material discussed in this volume.

Order Number

2. *Personality Development in the Classroom*, Louis P. Thorpe. (Chapter IV.)
3. *Teacher-Pupil Planning Techniques*, Harry H. Giles. (Chapters X, XIII.)
7. *The High School Curriculum for Life Adjustment*, Harl R. Douglass. (Chapters VI, XII.)

10. *Understanding Education, Parents, and Self*, Myron S. Olson. (Chapters I, XVI.)
11. *Providing for Individual Differences in the Classroom*, William C. Trow. (Chapter IX.)
12. *The Teacher and Public Relations*, Irving R. Melbo. (Chapter XVI.)
15. *Let Us Make a Study of Study*, William H. Burton. (Chapter XIII.)
19. *Developing a Core Program in the High School*, Harold Alberty. (Chapters VI, XVI.)
21. *Guidance in Modern Schools*, Shirley A. Hamrin. (Chapter XI.)
22. *The Improvement of Teaching Through Audio-Visual Materials*. Edgar Dale and James D. Finn. (Chapters V, IX, XIII.)
23. *A Reply to the Attacks on Our Schools*, Louis Kaplan. (Chapter I.)
25. *The Effective Junior High School*, Myron S. Olson. (Chapter VI.)
26. *Improving the Services of Extraclass Activities*, J. Lloyd Thump. (Chapter VII.)
28. *Principles of Teaching and Learning on the Secondary School Level*, Hugh M. Shafer. (Chapter III, IX-XIII, XVI.)
29. *The Use of Group Dynamics in Classroom Teaching*, Willard B. Spalding. (Chapters IX, X, XIII, XVI.)

William H. Kilpatrick Birthday Records (microgroove, 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ rpm. Set of 6 records; Alpark Educational Records, Inc., Pelham, New York.)
 Recordings of discussions between Dr. Kilpatrick and other educational leaders on such topics as "The World Situation," "Civilization and the Good Life," "Personal Characteristics Necessary to Civilization and the Good Life," "The Educative Process," "William H. Kilpatrick Discusses Civilization and the Good Life with a Group of Children," and "What's on My Mind" by Dr. Kilpatrick with John Dewey and John L. Childs.

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